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OR, AN

ABSTRACT

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THE ENGLISH REVIEW,

For JANUARY 1793.

ART. I. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, Vol. LXXXI. For the Year 1791. Part I. pp. 152. 4to. 8s. 6d. sewed. Elmsley. London, 1792.*

Art. I. **A** Second Paper on Hygrometry. By J. A. De Luc, Esq. F. R. S.—M. de Luc's first paper on hygrometry had been published in the *Philosophical Transactions*, so long ago as the year 1775. The present contains a recapitulation of his former views, with an account of his subsequent experiments on that subject. To wade through this dull, verbose, confused production, was intolerable drudgery. The general conclusions are these: 1. *Fire*, as a cause of *heat*, is a sure, and the only sure, means of obtaining *extreme dryness*: this is produced by *white heat* in every *hygroscopic* substance, that can bear it; and it may be thus transmitted to the *hygrometer*. 2. *Water*, in its liquid state, is a sure, and the only sure, means of determining the point of *extreme moisture* on that instrument. 3. It is not to be expected, *a priori*, of any *hygroscopic* substance, that its *changes* be proportional to those of *moisture*; but it may be affirmed, that no *fibrous* or *vascular* substance, taken *lengthwise*, is proper for the *hygrometer*. 4. A means of throwing light on the *march* of a chosen *hygrometer* may be, to compare it with the correspondent changes in *weight* of many *hygroscopic* substances. M. de Luc's very important proposition in *hygrometry* must also be given in his own words, for it appears to be unintelligible jargon. The *maximum* of *evaporation* in a mass of inclosed *air* is far from being identical with the *maximum* of *moisture*; this being dependent also, even to a very great degree, on the *temperature* of the *space*, supposed to be the same, or nearly so, as that of the *water* which *evaporates* in it. *Moisture* may arrive to its *extreme*, in an inclosed *air*, if that common *temperature* is near freezing.

‘freezing point; but it becomes less and less, even to a very dry state, as that *temperature* rises, though the *product of evaporation* thereby increasing, continues to be at its different *maxima*, correspondent to the different *temperatures*.’ These passages are plentifully bespattered with Italics; an expedient to which an inferior author has recourse when he strains hard to catch an idea. M. de Luc denominates the transverse sections of animal or vegetable substances, *slips*; and the longitudinal, *threads*; and regards the former as more regular and consistent in their indications of moisture than the latter. Quick lime had been recommended to him as a proper substance for bringing inclosed air into the state of extreme dryness; and he found it to answer. ‘*Moisture*,’ he says, ‘is a quantity of *invisible water*, either *evaporable* or *evaporated*.’ We are ashamed to transcribe an assertion so absurd. Can water be ever invisible but in its own medium? It is well known that light, in passing from one substance into another of different refracting power, is copiously reflected. Hence in mist, the only case where the aqueous particles certainly float in the atmosphere, the intermingled reflections produce a white appearance; and the number of rays also stopt in their progress through the dense substance of the water, occasions a degree of obscurity. We may be assured, therefore, that whenever the air seems clear and transparent, it is homogeneous, or has its humidity chemically combined with it. M. de Luc endeavours to prove, by some vague and superficial analogies, that the hygroscopic substances imbibe moisture like capillary tubes. But this does not in the least, affect the main question; for we must still ascribe the absorption, to an attraction between these substances and water. They will, continue, therefore, to imbibe, till their power of retaining the humidity be counterbalanced by the opposite attraction of the air. But the attraction of the air to water depends on its density and temperature, and hence varies extremely. The attraction of the hygroscopic substances themselves must likewise be greatly affected by their degree of heat. What a plentiful source of error and confusion! Besides, does the quantity of imbibed moisture always enlarge these substances proportionally? and is this effect uniform in every dimension? M. de Luc himself is obliged to confess, that, so far from regularly dilating certain fibres, it often contracts them. But his experiments could never prove that the other fibres suffer an uniform expansion; they could only determine the agreement or disparity of the effects produced by humidity on different fibres. What, then can be expected from a hygrometer affected by such a variety of causes, which are always irregular, and often counter-act each other? No wonder that M. de Luc met with such anomalies

anomalies and incongruities in the application of that instrument. Its principles are, therefore, radically false; and 'the great points' which this trifling physician fancies he has 'already attained in *hygology*, *meteorology*, and *chemistry*,' must be rejected as entirely hypothetical. In short, M. de Luc's 'twenty years assiduous labour in *hygrometry*,' upon which he assumes an air of such importance, has been spent to very little purpose.

Art. II. On the Production of Ambergris. A Communication from the Committee of Council appointed for the Consideration of all Matters relating to trade and foreign Plantations; with a prefatory Letter from William Fawkener, Esq. to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—It appears, from the evidence of Captain Coffin, that, in the South sea, the whales occur in large *schools*, from 15 to 1000; that the males and females are nearly equal in number; that the spermaceti whales feed almost wholly on the fish called *squids*; and that ambergris is most likely to be found in sickly whales. This drug sells for about twenty shillings an ounce. Captain Coffin obtained 362 ounces from a single fish.

Art. III. Observations on the Affinity between Basaltes and Granite. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. Communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—Dr. Beddoes conceives it to be thoroughly established, that basaltes are formed by subterraneous fusion; and to granite he ascribes the same origin. This opinion is supported by judicious arguments, and by citations from accurate mineralogical travellers. Basaltes is seen to pass by insensible gradations through porphyry into granite. Chemical analysis is not altogether sufficient to decide with regard to the identity of these stones, since the proportions of the component parts vary widely in each stratum and in each specimen. The difference in hardness, or in the size of the particles, cannot be esteemed essential; and to account for it, the ingenious author offers a very plausible conjecture:

'No fact is more familiar than it depends altogether on the management of the fire, and the time of cooling, whether a mass shall have the uniform vitreous fracture, or an earthy broken grain, arising from a confused crystallisation. The art of making Reaumur's porcelain consists entirely in allowing the glass time to crystallise by a slow refrigeration; and the very same mass, according as the heat is conducted, may, without any alteration of its chemical constitution, be successively exhibited any number of times as glass, or as a stony matter with a broken grain. In the slag of the iron furnaces, the same piece generally exhibits both of these appearances; the upper surface cools fast, and is glass; what lies deeper loses its heat more gradually, and is allowed time to take on the crystalline arrangement

peculiar to its nature, in as far as a number of crystals, starting from various points at once, crowding each other, will admit of it. Here, indeed, the crystals are uniform, and not of a different form and composition, as in granite; so that this analogy applies closely only to basalt; and it perfectly explains why this body, in congealing, has assumed an earthy, and not a vitreous grain. But it is easy to conceive how, under certain variations of heat and mixture, a melted mass may coagulate into quartz, feldspath, or mica. The most permanent difference between basalt and granite, as to mixture, consists in the quantity of iron; for the earths, in the innumerable varieties of each, vary indefinitely in their proportions; and as to heat, that perhaps the latter having been in general raised from a greater depth, and consisting of more huge masses, must have cooled more slowly; and perhaps they have undergone different degrees of fusion. Besides, toadstone, basalt inclosing feldspath, zeolite, &c. various lavas clearly demonstrate that heterogeneous earthy crystals do separate from a fused paste, once undoubtedly as uniform as a metallic calx and its reducing flux before the subsidence of the metallic particles.'

A striking circumstance in the natural history of basalt and granite is, that they are found contiguous and involved; so that we cannot help supposing them to have been formed by the same operation. It is almost a general rule with mineralogists, that lime rests on schistus, and this on granite; but Dr. Beddoes mentions numerous instances, in this island, where basalt is substituted in the series instead of granite; 'and as limestone,' he adds, 'is sometimes said to rest immediately on granite, so 'at the foot of the Wrekin and at Lilleshall Hill, no slate is interposed between the limestone and basalt.'

It follows from these observations, that the common division of mountains into primary and secondary, is totally without foundation:

'The chains of granite, schistus, and limestone, must be all coeval; for if the central chain of the Alps burst as a body expanded by heat from the bowels of the earth, it reared the bordering chains at the same effort. But it must be recollected, that the mountains no longer wear their original form, valleys having been cut between and through them, and various other effects of dilapidation having taken place. It is by no means difficult to understand why no exuviae of organised bodies are found in these imaginary primitive mountains. Rising from a great depth, they threw aside the superficial accumulations of the ancient ocean. What was deepest is therefore now most central; and what lay on the surface, now skirts the high interior chains. Hence the strata rest indifferently on granite, basalt, or lava; all which substances derive from their situation an equal claim to be regarded as primordial materials.'

It is surprising, as the intelligent author remarks, that the inveterate error just alluded to should have prevailed till the late publication of Dr. Hutton's admirable Theory of the Earth, in the first volume of the Edinburgh Transactions. Dr. Beddoes concludes this paper with a refutation of Saussure's opinion, that veins of granite are formed by the infiltration of water.

Art. IV. On Nebulous Stars, properly so called. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.—Since the discovery of the telescope, it has generally been admitted by astronomers, that the nebulous appearance of stars arises from the confused light of small stellar groups. The excellent optical instruments of Dr. Herschel enabled him to extend and confirm this opinion. But some late observations have disposed him to retract, and even to relapse into the old doctrine, that many of the stars are immersed in a dilute, luminous fluid. Of these observations, the most singular is thus described in his journal: ' November 13, 1790. A most singular phenomenon! A star of about the 8th magnitude, with a faint luminous atmosphere, of a circular form, and of about 3' diameter. The star is perfectly in the centre, and the atmosphere is so diluted, faint, and equal throughout, that there can be no surmise of its consisting of stars; nor can there be a doubt of the evident connexion between the atmosphere and the star. Another star, not much less in brightness, and in the same field with the above, was perfectly free from any such appearance.'—This phenomenon is very favourable to the opinion which Dr. Herschel has now adopted; but we much doubt if the inference be not hastily drawn. To establish such a point, would require numerous observations, repeated at considerable intervals of time.

Art. V. Abstract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lyndon, in Rutland. By Thomas Barker, Esq. with the Rain in Hampshire and Surrey, for the Year 1789. Communicated by Thomas White, Esq. F. R. S.—The quantity of rain which in 1789 fell at Lyndon, in Rutland, was 28 inches, and Selbourn, in Hampshire, 42 inches. The winter 1788, 89, though intensely cold, especially in the south of Europe, was not quite so severe as the famous one in 1739, 40.

Art. VI. Observations on certain horny Excrescences of the Human Body. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.—Mr. Home conceives these excrescences to be modifications of the cuticle, the effect of local disease. The history which he gives of some recent cases, seems to establish this opinion; and Mr. Hunter's theory of incysted tumours accounts for the unnatural growth.

growth. That ingenious anatomist 'considers the internal structure of the cyst to be so circumstanced respecting the body, as to lose the stimulus of being an internal part, and receive the same impression from its contents, either from their nature, or the length of application, as the surface of the skin does from its external situation. It therefore takes on actions suited to such stimuli, undergoes a change in its structure, and acquires a disposition similar to the cutis, and is consequently possessed of the power of producing cuticle and hair.' The excrescences above mentioned, though they have the appearance of horns, are different in their internal structure; they are analogous to the nails, which protrude from the surface of the cutis.

ART. VII. Considerations on the Convenience of measuring an Arch of the Meridian, and of the Parallel of Longitude, having the Observatory of Geneva for their common Intersection. By Mark Augustus Pictet, Professor of Philosophy in the Academy of Geneva; in a Letter to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—Nothing but the officious importance of a Genevese, and a partial fondness to his country, could have induced M. Pictet to recommend it as a proper scene for measuring an arch of the meridian for amidst the mountains, the lakes, and the valleys of Switzerland, the deviation of the pendulum from the perpendicular would be very considerable, nor could it ever be corrected; not to mention the inconvenience and error occasioned by the excessive variations of temperature in those Alpine tracts. Besides, a degree of the meridian, nearly in that parallel, has been already measured accurately by the celebrated Father Boscovich.

To this part of the volume is subjoined the Meteorological Journal for 1790, kept at the apartments of the Royal Society. The greatest height of the thermometer was 86° , and the average throughout the year $50\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$. The greatest height of the barometer was 30.65 inches, the lowest 28.8, and mean 29.98, The quantity of rain was 16 inches.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *An Exposition of the New Testament; intended as an Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures, by pointing out the leading Sense and Connexion of the sacred Writers.* By William Gilpin, M. A. Prebendary of Sarum, &c. pp. 700. 4to. 1l. 1s. Blamire. London, 1799.

IT is a pleasing thought, that knowledge is now more universally diffused than it ever was in any past age of the world. Never was there such a number or variety of readers as at the present

present time. To supply their continued demands, it is necessary that there should be a considerable number of writers. As there is a great diversity of taste in those who read, it is requisite that there should be an equal diversity in those who write, whether it be for amusement or instruction. This holds good in regard to religion, as well as every other subject, and to the particular branch of theological science, which respects the illustration of the sacred scriptures. Some love an acute critic; others a skilful philologist; others a pious commentator; and others a simple expositor, who will plainly deliver the meaning of the sacred oracles. Mr. Gilpin is a writer of the last description. In a dedication to the Bishop of Salisbury he thus announces his work:

' Among the many expositions of the scriptures, I know none of the kind I now offer, under your lordship's patronage, to the public. You exactly hit my idea when you called it a *readable* one, in opposition, I suppose, to the generality of expositions, which are too diffuse to be read with ease, though much fitter to be consulted than mine.

' Though I have not the presumption, my lord, to suppose that mine can be of much use to the professed scholar, yet I am willing to flatter myself it may be of some assistance to two classes of people: to the younger students in divinity, as an introduction to the scriptures; and to those whose engagements in the world; or necessary business, may prevent their making deeper researches.'

The dedication is followed by a very sensible general preface, in the course of which Mr. Gilpin favours us with an account of his design, which we shall transcribe:

' The following work is certainly not intended as a *substitute* to the labours of the many learned men who have commented on the scriptures, but as an *introduction* to them. It is meant to give, in a short compass, a general idea of what the commentator discusses at large. In their works we have the parts often ably explained, but rarely a connected view of the whole. In the following work this plan hath been reversed. The general sense and connexion of the whole hath been attended to, without regarding minutely the critical examination of parts; so that the reader may pursue the narrative, or argument, without interruption. This endeavour to place the leading subject in the fairest point of light, hath sometimes made me more concise than I should otherwise have chosen to be. I wished to avoid what I thought the greatest fault of paraphrasts, that of saying every thing that can be said, and leaving nothing to the reader's observation. Many parts of scripture require no explanation; and a difficult part of scripture is not always difficult because it is concise. An explanation, perhaps, need employ no more words than a difficulty. It appeared to me, in short, a useful mode of commenting to give just the leading sense, which is sometimes lost, or however injured, in a multiplicity of words; while, I trust, I have left nothing unsaid,

except in critical matters, which will not easily strike an observant reader, on looking into the original. I have sometimes also abridged, where a sentiment or fact is drawn out, according to the Jewish idiom, into repetition; or where a doctrine relates to some ancient error, and is less interesting at this time. But when I overrun a real difficulty, the reader will generally find some account of it in the notes; unless it relates to any nicety of verbal criticism, which I leave to works more professedly written on those subjects. I refer, however, to each verse in the margin, that the reader may with ease apply elsewhere for satisfaction when he misses it here. A clear, connected discourse, without pausing long at obstacles, hath been chiefly aimed at, which may itself lessen many difficulties; and, by throwing a general light over the whole, make even the *parts* more intelligible. 'I am more and more convinced (says a pious and able expositor *), that the vulgar sense of the New Testament, that is, the sense in which an honest man of plain sense would take it on his first reading it, is almost every where the true general sense of any passage; though an acquaintance with the language and antiquity, with an attentive meditation on the text and context, may illustrate the spirit and energy of a multitude of places.'

'Upon the whole, I have endeavoured, in this exposition, as nearly as I can, to give the scriptures in such a dress, as I humbly (very humbly) suppose they might have appeared in, if they had been written originally in English; and accommodated to the customs, idioms, and modes, of phraseology now in use; and by giving them this modern cast, I have attempted to make the sense of them as familiar to our ears as it was to those of the early Christians. One great point I have laboured is, to make the connexion between the several parts of a discourse as easy as I can. The Jewish writers, among whom composition was not cultivated as a science, were little attentive to this matter. A train of ideas no doubt flowed regularly in their minds; but it is not always obvious to a modern ear, which is accustomed to a more artificial combination. In the writings of St. Paul this abruptness is particularly remarkable. On this point I have taken all the pains I could, and have used the best helps I could find to shew the connexion.'

Many things in this preface will be found exceedingly useful to the persons for whose use this commentary is designed. Mr. Gilpin's ideas of inspiration we do not entirely approve: objections might be brought against his hypothesis, which he would find it difficult to answer. To the gospels is prefixed a life of Christ, drawn from the prophecies of the Old Testament, and arranged under proper heads. There is a short preface, too short, indeed, to each of the books of the New Testament; and there are a few notes to elucidate difficult passages. But the nature of Mr. Gilpin's work will be best understood by selecting,

as a specimen, a passage from the gospel history, and another from the epistles, which the reader may compare with our translation.

The parable of the prodigal son, recorded in Luke xv. 12—32, he thus narrates :

‘ A certain man, said he, had two sons ; the younger of whom, tired of the restraint of a well-ordered family, begged his father to give him at once his inheritance, and leave him to himself. Having obtained his request, he set out directly in search of happiness, on a long journey. Riot and prodigality attended all his steps ; and beggary and distress soon followed. To supply the necessities of nature, he was at length obliged to submit to the most servile employments. But his misery still increasing, he came at length to a resolution to return to his father, and try, if possible, to regain his affections. With the deepest humility, therefore, and contrition, he returned almost in the agony of despair. But his father seeing him at a distance, ran to meet him ; and throwing his arms around his neck, received him with unbounded tenderness ; and carrying him home, spent the remainder of the day in rejoicing.

‘ The elder brother in the mean time was in the fields ; but returning in the evening, was surprised, as he approached the house, to hear the sound of music and festivity. Calling, therefore, one of the servants to him, he inquired the cause ; and being informed that his brother had returned safe, and that his father had, on that account, made a day of rejoicing ; he was highly displeased, and refused to go in. His father condescended even to entreat him ; but he was received with reproaches. I, who have served you, said the haughty youth, all my life with fidelity, never received the least token of any particular attention. But when your prodigal son returns, after consuming all he had in riot, nothing is thought too good for him.

‘ To all this impropriety of language the father tenderly replied, Son, you are ever with me, and have partaken always of my kindness. Be satisfied therefore ; and be not offended at my receiving with affection your lost brother, who is restored to me by contrition, penitence, and resolutions of obedience.’

From the epistles we shall select the apostle's prayer for the Christians at Ephesus, chap. iii. 13.

‘ Consider my sufferings, therefore, as the source of your advantages. I thank God they are. I repine not at them. I bow my knees to the Father of heaven and earth, intreating him to perfect his work, and, by his blessed influence, to form in your hearts the true gospel spirit of faith and love. I pray God give you as full and comprehensive a knowledge of Christianity as we mortals can attain ! and fill your minds with his wonderful mercies and goodness through Christ, for which every thought of our hearts should be impressed with gratitude and praise !’

Mr. Gilpin's task is exceedingly arduous. There is so much simplicity and *naïveté* in the historical part of the scriptures, that if

if other language be attempted, it is the most difficult thing in the world to equal its beauty, and to preserve its unaffected and enchanting garb. And in the doctrinal parts there is such a fulness of matter, and such an abundance of ideas, delivered in a manner so concise and striking, that it is impossible to deliver the same sentiments in as few words; and in the use of different expressions there is the greatest danger of losing the spirit, force, and richness of the original. If Mr. Gilpin has exemplified these remarks, it is not to be ascribed to a want of talents, or of application, but to the nature of the subject, and the mode of writing that he has chosen. At the same time we are far from thinking but that this commentary may have its use in conveying a considerable portion of sacred knowledge to that class of readers for whom it was designed.

ART. III. *The History of the principal Transactions of the Irish Parliament, from the Year 1634 to 1666; containing Proceedings of the Lords and Common. during the Administration of the Earl of Strafford, and of the first Duke of Ormond; with a Narrative of his Grace's Life, collected from the Papers of St. Robert Southwell, Knt. Secretary of State in Ireland, and President of the Royal Society. To which is prefixed, a Preliminary Discourse on the ancient Parliaments of that Kingdom. By the Right Hon. Lord Mountmorres. pp. 843. 2 vols. 8vo. 12s. boards. Cadell. London, 1792.*

THE present work is modelled according to the idea of the late Sir Richard Cox, who composed a short narrative of the proceedings of the Irish parliament in the session of 1737. The original design of the author was to write a brief account of every session in both houses, from the commencement of the journals; but the plan was abridged, upon the conviction that the labour of an individual was unequal to so laborious a compilation.

This work is introduced with a preliminary discourse, containing an account of the expedition of Earl Strongbow, and of Henry the Second, into Ireland, from Giraldus Cambrensis; after which is given a narrative of the sessions of parliament, from the ninth year of Edward the Second till the reign of Elizabeth; of the sessions of parliament in the reign of Elizabeth; of the sessions in 1613, 1614, and 1615. The most memorable transactions in those times is the famous act called Poyning's Law, which regulated the mode of summoning parliaments, and of passing laws.

The

The author then passes to the proceedings of the Irish parliament from 1634 to 1666, during the life and administration of James Butler, the first Duke of Ormond, whose history, drawn from the materials collected by Sir Robert Southwell, is prefixed to this part of the work. The memoirs bear strong marks of authenticity and good information, but cannot now be regarded as interesting. The same may be said of the proceedings of the Irish parliament in general. The detail being taken from the Journals, is undoubtedly well founded; but it contains no incident of importance; nor, indeed, could any such be expected, while the Irish parliament continued to be implicitly directed, either by the legislature or the executive power of England. Lord Mountmorres, nevertheless, has set an example to future times, of laying before the public a genuine narrative of the proceedings of parliament; though no friend to his country will ever wish for those turbulent periods, during which alone such records can afford gratification to curiosity. The most pleasing part of the present work, is the account, occasionally interspersed, of some eminent characters. An appendix contains Lord Mountmorres's speech relative to rehearing causes—heads of the establishment of Ireland—catalogue of the Irish nobility in 1571 and 1681—instructions for the council of trade—a state of the parliament at Westminster in 1654—an indenture, containing a grant of all his majesty's revenue of Ireland.

ART. IV. *Voyages to the Coast of Africa, by Messrs. Saugnier and Briffon: containing an Account of their Shipwreck on board different Vessels, and subsequent Slavery; and interesting Details of the Manners of the Arabs of the Desert, and of the Slave Trade, as carried on at Senegal and Galam. With an accurate Map of Africa. Translated from the French.* pp. 500. 8vo. 7s. boards. Robinsons. London, 1792.

IN the account of foreign countries the great object of an author being the gratification of curiosity, no species of writing has been more often fabricated than that of voyages and travels. Amongst the numerous productions of this kind, Africa has a principal share; and both from the great extent and natural circumstances of that quarter of the globe, there is reason to expect that it will long continue to be the scene of geographical investigation. To discriminate authentic from fictitious narratives in the recital of voyages, is on many occasions literally impossible. Such, therefore, as contain nothing which violates credibility, have doubtless a just claim to be received by the public

public with candour; and we may add in favour of the present work, that it has at least the appearance of being genuine.

The first of these voyages is to Senegal, and was performed in 1784. The ship striking on a sand-bank on the coast of Africa, it was soon after wrecked, and the crew, who saved their lives, were reduced to a state of indigence and slavery. Of the circumstances attending this unfortunate incident we shall extract a part of the narrative:

‘ We were more than a quarter of a league from it (the coast of Africa), nor could we distinguish any thing on the shore: this, however, did not prevent M. Decham, the master’s mate, a native of Bourdeaux, only nineteen years old, but of a bold and intrepid disposition, from leaping into the sea. He tied the deep-sea-line* round his waist, that it might serve him to tow a somewhat thicker rope ashore, that would have been a great assistance to us, in case of the ship’s going to pieces.

‘ The rocks among which this young man was obliged to swim, made him let go the line; so that his courage was of no use to us. Overcome with fatigue and cold, he sheltered himself from the wind in a cask that the sea had already carried to the beach.

‘ Scarcely was he in it, when we saw an animal running along the sea-side, which our fear transformed into a tiger; it was a dog, belonging to some Moors, who soon after made their appearance. The people known in Europe by the general name of Moors, compose, however, several nations; those whom we perceived are the descendants of the wandering Arabs, and of the Portuguese fugitives, who took refuge in Zaara when the sherifs made themselves masters of the three kingdoms of Barbary: they are known in Africa by the general appellation of *Nar*. Those who occupy the country where we were wrecked, are called *Mongearts*: they are only governed by chiefs of hordes, and acknowledge no sovereign but the Emperor of Morocco; to whom, however, they pay no tribute, and whose very laws they do not observe. Those who inhabit the country towards Cape Blanco, and on the banks of the Niger, are known by several names, and have their own princes; the most considerable are the King of the *Blacnars*, and the King of the *Trafnars*.

‘ These people are miserably poor, destitute of every thing, and live only upon what they can find or steal. The earth they inhabit not supplying their wants, they eagerly seize every thing that seems likely to satisfy them. They came running down in crowds to the sea-side, and bellowing in the most dreadful manner.

‘ On hearing their cries the wretched Decham left his cask, and throwing himself into the sea, attempted to swim back to the ship; but he was soon stopped by the Moors, who leaped in after him. They dragged him to the beach, stripped him of his shirt, and led him to the top of the hill. Standing all on the fore part of the ship,

* Line for sounding in deep water.

we stretched out our arms towards them, and implored their mercy, as if they could have heard us. Our weak voices did not reach them, nor did they even seem to pay attention to our gestures. By the help of our glasses we saw them make a hole in the sand, put the wretched Decham in it, and cover him entirely.

Two men guarded him, and the others returned to the beach; part of them leaping into the sea, and swimming towards the vessel, while the rest were employed in picking up the fragments of the casks we had thrown overboard. They then kindled them, ran to fetch Decham, carried him between four, and exposed him to the fire. Sometimes they suspended him by the feet, sometimes they held him transversely, and handed him from one to another. New mountaineers coming down took the place of the first, who began to dance round the fire with horrid cries. At this moment we gave him up for lost, our frightened imagination making us regard as the height of inhumanity in this people what was no more than the signs of their pity and sensibility.

Our sailors, little accustomed to a sight of this nature, fancied they had killed and eaten him; several even affirmed that they had seen him torn to pieces. It was in vain we told them that no cannibals existed on those coasts; nothing could make them change their idea.

Neither the orders of the officers, nor of the captain himself, were any longer listened to. They imagined that the savages would be bold enough to come on board, and were determined, they said, to fight to the last extremity.

Finding that no reasons could prevail upon the crew to lighten the vessel, which the waves drove towards the coast, I went upon deck, offering money to any body that would take it. A bag of twelve hundred livres, that I had received from M. Follie, was emptied in a moment. Although they were certain that if they saved their lives this money would be of no use to them, yet it served to draw them out of that kind of lethargy into which they were sunk. A part of them busied themselves again in lightening the vessel, while the others put the arms in order. They were scarcely prepared, when the captain ordered every body to leave off work. His design was to repair to the beach in parties well-armed.

Two swivels loaded with langridge shot were put into the barge; we hoisted it out by main strength, and four sailors got into it, fully resolved to make a desperate defence. We were persuaded that these people seeing them armed, would not dare to attack them; we thought besides that our swivels were more than sufficient to keep them off; luckily, however, our project proved ineffectual. Our measures had been ill taken; the barge overfet, and our people were fortunate enough to get on board again, by the help of ropes we instantly threw out.

This event did not make us abandon our idea; the long-boat remained, and we resolved to make use of it to execute the same project. Working with the greatest ardour to get it over the side, we exhausted

exhausted our strength, and were obliged to take some refreshment. This was what saved us. Reflection made us perceive the danger to which we were so wantonly exposing ourselves. The idea of laying a deck over the long-boat came into the head of one of us, and we believed it to be of easy execution. Our captain thinking we were wrecked upon Cape Non, hoped by these means to reach the Canary Islands. Others said it would be easier to reach Senegal, on account of the winds that prevail in those latitudes. This latter opinion was the best, and would have been followed. We set to work, but without success, being only able to nail on a few planks. After infinite pains in hoisting out the boat, we moored it alongside with stout ropes, for fear it should meet with the same fate as our barge. We then put on board provisions, money, arms, and our most valuable effects; but however wisely our measures were taken, we were once more disappointed in our hopes.

The author informs us that the Moors, to whose lot he fell, treated him with such unexpected kindness, that he became sincerely attached to them. The horde to which he belonged was composed of fifty-two tents, sometimes altogether, sometimes divided, according as the convenience of pasturage required. These tents are made of strong black stuff, of goat's and camel's hair. All their furniture consists of some straw ropes for their cattle, and an earthen pot to warm their milk, or boil their meat, a ladle, a mat, a knife, a pike, and a great stone, which serves as a hammer to drive in the pins of the tent. The men pass their time in tending their flocks, and in hunting; and the women in spinning and dressing their victuals. Both sexes alike wear goat skins. The finery of the men consists in the beauty of their arms, such as daggers, sabres, and muskets, and in a string of large white crystal. That of the women consists in necklaces of amber, coral, or glass beads, and in gold or silver ear-rings.

When any thing is stolen unperceived, it ever afterwards belongs to the thief. Hence arises this people's inclination for rapine: they do not think they commit a crime, and only follow, in this respect, a custom allowed by their laws.

The fidelity of the women among the Mongearts is incorruptible. Different in their opinions from all the other Mahometans, they think they are immortal like the men; but they do not flatter themselves with the possibility of obtaining happiness in the next world, unless when they shall have been faithful to their husbands. If they should fail in this duty, they believe that they should be the eternal slaves of the more virtuous part of their sex, without ever partaking of their bliss.

The author gives an account of a people known by the general name of Monselemines, in Bilidulgerid. Their government

ment is republican, and they choose new chiefs every year. This nation, more industrious than their neighbours, gives attention to agriculture. The chief of each family having chosen the ground that appears to him most proper, they slightly turn up the surface of the earth with a kind of crook, and then throw in the seed. The crop is ripe in three months; and they cut their corn at about six inches from the ear.

The author thus describes the unhappy state of the empire of Morocco:

'The people subject to the dominion of the Emperor of Morocco, are less happy than those of whom I have just spoken. The prejudices of their nation, the arbitrary power of their princes, whom they believe to be descended from the great prophet; the pillage to which they are ever exposed, whether at war or not; the necessity of concealing their property, for fear of being stripped of it by the emperor or his governors; all concur to make them slaves and barbarians. They have no regard for their neighbours; plunder and rob one another as often as it is in their power; and, subject in every thing to the will of an imperious master, they have not even the liberty of lamenting their sad situation. Their greatest misfortunes, no doubt, is their ignorance of all the social affections. The father fears his son, the son is afraid of his father; and thus from this complication of vices and prejudices, the Moorish nation, which possesses one of the fairest portions of the earth, is always wretched, and often in want of the very necessities of life.'

We are next presented with an account of a voyage to Galam; a small village, known only as the place of meeting of the inhabitants of Senegal, for the purpose of selling their commodities. This place, however, has its king, who is said to have been brought up at Senegal, and speaks French and English fluently.

Much of the narrative, in the remaining part of the volume, relates to the trade carried on at Senegal and Galam, interspersed with a general description of the country, and the manners of the inhabitants. The author acknowledges, and we doubt not with truth, that he ardently wished to be restored to his own country; but we find, from the preface, that, notwithstanding the disasters incurred in both voyages, he is desirous of being yet employed in prosecuting researches into Africa.

ART. V. *The Rights of Juries defended; together with the Authorities of Law in Support of those Rights; and the Objections to Mr. Fox's Libel Bill refuted. By Charles, Earl Stanhope, F. R. S. and of the Society of Arts, and Member of the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia.* pp. 164. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Elmsly. London, 1792.

THE mode of trial by jury has ever been regarded as an invaluable privilege in the British constitution; and to preserve the rights of juries inviolate must therefore be an object of the last importance to the free-born subjects of these kingdoms. It unfortunately happens, however, that, in cases of libel, the theory and practice of jurisprudence, in this country, have long been at variance with each other. Those who are jealous of every apparent encroachment on the constitution affirm, that juries have an undeniable right to judge of the law as well as the fact, in cases of libel, no less than in every other charge of offence submitted to the decision of their verdict; while those lawyers, on the other hand, who are tenacious of power and consequence, maintain that juries have a right to judge only of the matter of fact. To investigate this important controversy, is the object of Earl Stanhope in the elaborate production now before us; in which it must be acknowledged that his lordship displays great force of argument, as well as abstruse disquisition into legal authorities on the subject. Were we to present our readers with all the pointed observations in this treatise, we should much exceed the limits of our journal; and shall therefore only submit to their attention the following passage, which seems to be decisive of the dispute:

‘ Suppose an indictment to be preferred against a man for *forging a bill of exchange*, the whole of which bill is set forth in the indictment. Now, there are *two* points of *law* which arise in this case; either or both of which may be the subject matter upon which the jury may pray the opinion of the court in a *special verdict*. The jury may either *find the forgery*, and pray the opinion of the court, whether the thing so forged be or be not, in *law*, a *bill of exchange*; or else the jury may *find that it is a bill of exchange*; and pray the opinion of the court, whether, under the circumstances of the case, it did or did not, in *law*, amount to a *forgery*.

‘ Therefore, the jury *leaving* to the court *either* point of *law* at their own *option*, is a clear and demonstrative proof, that, if the jury think fit, they have a *right* to decide upon *both*.

‘ I will now state an argument which is decisive upon the *right* of juries to determine matter of *law* as well as *facts*. Blackstone, in his Commentaries, says, that ‘ it is a *settled rule* at common law, that *no counsel* shall be allowed a prisoner upon his trial, upon the general issue,

issue, in any capital crime, *unless some point of law shall arise proper to be debated.* And Hawkins says the same thing, in his Pleas of the Crown. The law has, however, been altered by statute, with respect to high treason and misprision of treason. If the prisoner be a poor man, and cannot afford counsel, such is the humane spirit of the law of England, that the court *must assign him counsel*, who will act for him *gratis*, and argue *points of law* before the jury. As, for instance, if a man were indicted for *forging a bond*, which is a capital offence; and if a question of *law* were to arise at the trial, whether the *bond*, the *whole* of which is in the indictment, be, in the eye of the law, a *bond* or not: in such case, the counsel for the prisoner must argue *that point of law* before the jury; but, upon *matter of fact*, the prisoner's counsel is *not* entitled to be heard. Now, since it is (as Blackstone and Hawkins state) a *settled rule of law*, that counsel, who cannot speak upon the *facts*, should nevertheless be allowed a defendant, expressly for the purpose of arguing the *points of law* before the jury; I appeal to the common-sense of mankind, whether *that rule of law* is not a demonstrative proof that *juries have a right to decide upon law* as well as *fact*?

But it is said by some persons, that the jury are 'to compound their verdict of the fact as it appears in evidence before them, and of the law as it is declared to them by the judge;' which is as much as to say, that arguments of counsel upon *points of law*, though addressed to the jury, are *not intended* for the jury, but are only intended for the judge at the trial, the jury being to take the *law* from him; as if it were possible, that the law should intend that counsel should address themselves to *traverse* men, when it is meant that they should be heard only by *one*, and that one not even one of the twelve!

We cannot dismiss this copious and forcible defence of the libel bill without bestowing our sincere acknowledgment of the abilities and industry manifested by Earl Stanhope on a subject so closely connected with the dearest interests of public freedom.

ART. VI. *A compendious System of the Theory and Practice of Modern Surgery; arranged in a new Nosological and Systematic Method, different from any yet attempted in Surgery. In the Form of a Dialogue. By Hugh Munro, Surgeon, President of the Chirurgo Physical and Extraordinary Member of the American Physical Societies of Edinburgh.* pp. 352. 8vo. 5s. boards. Richardson, London. 1792.

EVERY subject of disquisition, and especially those of a technical nature, must always be greatly elucidated by perspicuity of arrangement. On this account, we cannot but approve of the classification adopted by the author of the System of Surgery now before us; though a nosological method of arrangement

is not to be understood as applying with equal force to the theory and practice of that art. The form of dialogue, or rather a catechism, is likewise favourable to a concise prosecution of the subject; and it has the particular advantage of confining an author's excursions within the strict channel of utility. The manner in which the work is executed will best appear from a specimen, which, to preclude the idea of selection, we shall take from the beginning of the volume:

Q. 1. What is a phlegmone?

A. It is a spheroidal tumor, attended with heat, redness, pain, quick and hard pulse, tension, and a degree of pyrexia, when it is considerable; upon extracting blood it always shews an inflammatory crust.

Q. 2. In what manner does phlegmone terminate?

A. Upon the whole of the symptoms (Q. 1.) subsiding, and the tumor dissolving. It is said to terminate by *resolution*, when the symptoms continue for some time to advance, and a quantity of serum is thrown out by the inflamed vessels; which liquor is again converted into a mild white thick matter, named *pus*. The affection is then said to terminate by *suppuration*. But when the symptoms still continue to advance, and the tumor shows no tendency either to resolution or suppuration, and the tone of the part at last comes to be destroyed, *gangrene* is said to take place. When a portion of the gangrenous part begins to separate from the sound, *spbacelus* is said to take place. When neither of these occur, and a gland has been inflamed for some time, an indolent hardness ensues, and the affection is said to terminate in *schirrhus*.

Q. 3. How is phlegmone distinguished from erysipelas?

A. In phlegmone the tumor is more circumscribed and prominent; it proceeds deeper in the skin; its contents, when suppuration takes place, are generally pus; whereas in erysipelas the discharge is thin and acrid, and the swelling more diffused and superficial.

Q. 4. What are the remote causes of phlegmone?

A. All stimuli, whether chemical or mechanical, acting either on the fluids or solids of the body, applied either externally to the surface of the body, or taken internally. A plethoric state of the system at the time may, in every case, be considered as a predisposing cause.

Q. 5. What is the proximate cause of phlegmone?

A. The proximate cause of phlegmone is that of inflammation in general. A variety of theories have been advanced to explain it; such as, a *partial debility* of the part, which, being in a weaker state than the rest of the system, a congestion of blood takes place, from which the tension, redness, and pain, proceed. Another theory has been given, viz. that a *lentor* of the fluids takes place, and occasions an obstruction of the vessels of the part. Others again alledge, that it depends on an *error loci*; that red globules are pushed forwards in vessels intended only to convey serum. Others again imagine it to be owing to a *spasmodic constriction* affecting the extreme vessels: all
of

of which theories are liable to many objections. The method of cure, however, seems to correspond better with the latter.

‘Q. 6. What prognosis can be given of inflammation in general?’

‘A. The prognosis must be always more or less favourable, in proportion to the extent and situation of the inflammation, and to its terminating either by resolution or suppuration. Any of these terminations, occurring on the surface of the body, a favourable prognosis may be given, particularly if it is not extensive, and the degree of pyrexia moderate. But, when the bowels are any way inflamed, or when the symptoms run so high as to threaten mortification, even on the surface of the body, the prognosis should be always guarded.

‘Q. 7. What is the most proper method of treating phlegmone?’

‘A. The mode of treatment must be that of inflammation in general; to endeavour, as much as possible, to effect a resolution (Q. 2.), by a strict antiphlogistic regimen, to promote suppuration (Q. 2.), if we fail in dissolving it; and, when we fail in both, to endeavour to mitigate or obviate the symptoms of gangrene from proceeding to too great a height.

‘Q. 8. What are the principal articles of the antiphlogistic regimen?’—

—But here we shall break off our extract.

It is proper to observe, that the word *prognosis*, in the above quotation, ought to have been *prognostic*, and is marked amongst the errata. If the author of this work may be taxed with any impropriety, it is chiefly with regard to the unnecessary use of new terms, in which we wish that he had been a little more sparing.

ART. VII. *Travels through North and South Carolina, Georgia, East and West Florida, the Cherokee Country, the extensive Territories of the Muscogulges or Creek Confederacy, and the Country of the Chactaws; containing an Account of the Soil and natural Productions of those Regions; together with Observations on the Manners of the Indians. Embellished with Copper-plates. By William Bartram. pp. 520. 8vo. 7s. 6d. boards. Johnson. London, 1792.*

THE author of these travels embarks at Philadelphia, and arrives at Charlestown, where the season of the year being unfavourable for observations in that quarter, he immediately resolved to make an excursion into Georgia. He therefore landed at Savanna, and proceeding southward, directed his course to Sunbury. Here he makes some observations on the town and harbour, and the adjacent island of St. Catharine. Crossing the river Alatomaha, he proceeds to the Indian frontier, whence he returns to Savanna, and again sets out from it on a journey towards

towards the north-west. He describes the face of the country, particularly the shrubs and plants which it produces, the river Savanna, the cataracts and village of Augusta, with that of Wrightsborough, on Little River. Near the latter of these villages is a remarkable forest, of which he gives a short account :

' Leaving the pleasant town of Wrightsborough,' says he, ' we continued eight or nine miles through a fertile plain and high forest, to the north branch of Little River, being the largest of the two, crossing which, we entered an extensive fertile plain, bordering on the river, and shaded by trees of vast growth, which at once spoke its fertility. Continuing some time through these shady groves, the scene opens, and discloses to view the most magnificent forest I had ever seen. We rose gradually a sloping bank of twenty or thirty feet elevation, and immediately entered this sublime forest. The ground is perfectly a level green plain, thinly planted by nature with the most stately forest trees, such as the gigantic black oak (*q. tinctoria*), *linodendron*, *juglans nigra*, *platanus*, *juglans exaltata*, *fagus sylvatica*, *ulmus sylvatica*, *liquidambar styraciflua*, whose mighty trunks, seemingly of an equal height, appeared like superb columns. To keep within the bounds of truth and reality, in describing the magnitude and grandeur of these trees, would, I fear, fail of credibility; yet I think I can assert, that many of the black oaks measured eight, nine, ten, and eleven feet diameter five feet above the ground, as we measured several that were above thirty feet girth, and from hence they ascend perfectly straight, with a gradual taper, forty or fifty feet to the limbs; but, below five or six feet, these trunks would measure a third more in circumference, on account of the projecting jambs, or supports, which are more or less, according to the number of horizontal roots that they arise from: the tulip tree, *liquidambar*, and beech, were equally stately.'

Near the eminence overlooking the low grounds of the river, the author informs us that he observed many magnificent monuments of the power and industry of the ancient inhabitants of those territories. Amongst them is a stupendous conical pyramid, or artificial mount of earth, vast tetragon terraces, and a large sunken area, of a cubical form, encompassed with banks of earth. With these are traces of a large Indian town, the work, according to Mr. Bartram, of a powerful nation, whose period of grandeur perhaps long preceded the discovery of the American continent.

In March 1774 the traveller set off from Savanna for East Florida, proceeding by land to the Alatomaha. In the account of the Little Lake, and its beautiful environs, we meet with the following description of a battle between two alligators :

' The verges and islets of the lagoon were elegantly embellished with flowering plants and shrubs; the laughing coots with wings half spread

spread were tripping over the little coves, and hiding themselves in the tufts of grass; young broods of the painted summer teal, skimming the still surface of the waters, and following the watchful parent unconscious of danger, were frequently surprised by the voracious trout; and he, in turn, as often by the subtle greedy alligator. Behold him rushing forth from the flags and reeds. His enormous body swells. His plaited tail brandished high, floats upon the lake. The waters like a cataract descend from his opening jaws. Clouds of smoke issue from his dilated nostrils. The earth trembles with his thunder. When immediately from the opposite coast of the lagoon emerges from the deep his rival champion. They suddenly dart upon each other. The boiling surface of the lake marks their rapid course, and a terrific conflict commences. They now sink to the bottom, folded together in horrid wreaths. The water becomes thick and discoloured. Again they rise, their jaws clap together, reaching through the deep surrounding forests. Again they sink, when the contest ends at the muddy bottom of the lake, and the vanquished makes a hazardous escape, hiding himself in the muddy turbulent waters and sedge on a distant shore. The proud victor exulting returns to the place of action. The shores and forests resound his dreadful roar, together with the triumphing shouts of the plaited tribes around, witnesses of the horrid combat.

Mr. Bartram describes the coach-whip snake as a beautiful creature. When full grown it is six or seven feet in length, and the largest part of its body is not so thick as a cane or common walking-stick; its head not larger than the end of a man's finger; its neck is very slender, and from the abdomen tapers away in the manner of a small switch or coach-whip. The top of the head and neck, for three or four inches, is as black and shining as a raven, the throat and belly as white as snow; and the upper side of the body of a chocolate colour, excepting the tail part, almost from the abdomen to the extremity, which is black. It varies, however, in respect to the colour of the body. It is extremely swift, seeming almost to fly over the surface of the ground; and, what is very singular, it can run swiftly on its tail-part only, carrying the head and body upright.

After mentioning various kinds of snakes in the regions of Florida and Carolina, the author enumerates the other tribes of animals which he observed during his peregrinations. Pennsylvania and Virginia appear to Mr. Bartram to be the climates in North America where the greatest variety and abundance of birds choose to celebrate their nuptials, and rear their offspring, which they annually return with to their winter habitations in the southern parts of North-America.

On the Georgia side of the Savanna are some hills which attracted the attention of the traveller. From three feet below

the common vegetative surface, to the depth of twenty or thirty feet, they are composed entirely of fossil oyster-shells, internally of the colour and consistence of clear white marble. The shells are of incredible magnitude, generally fifteen or twenty inches in length, from six to eight wide, and two to four in thickness. Their hollows are sufficient to receive an ordinary man's foot. They appear all to have been opened before the period of petrification. These shells the author supposes, with probability, to be very ancient, perhaps antediluvian.

The scenes described in our author's travels are chiefly those of still life. It is probable that the inhabitants, excepting the Indians, had nothing peculiar in their manners to afford subject for particular observation. From the copious account, however, which Mr. Bartram gives of the vegetable productions in North America, the narrative may yield both pleasure and information to the lovers of natural history; while his pious soliloquies and reflections, which often occur, will serve as a relief from the uniformity of continued description.

ART. VIII. *An Essay on Fevers; wherein their theoretic Genera, Species, and various Denominations, are, from Observation and Experience for Thirty Years, in Europe, Africa, and America, and on the intermediate Seas, reduced under their characteristic Genus, Febrile Infection; and the Cure established on philosophical Induction. By Robert Robertson, M.D. Physician to the Royal Hospital, Greenwich.* pp. 286. 8vo. 6s. boards. Robinson. London, 1790.

THE opinions entertained of fevers by physicians in different ages, will doubtless be found to constitute a very whimsical and jarring system of theory respecting the nature of those diseases. But the farther we advance in the chronological examination of the several theories, they assume, in general, a characteristic more reconcileable with probability, and lead to more rational induction concerning the method of cure. On perusing the essay now before us, we cannot help thinking that Dr. Robertson has industriously amassed the obsolete notions of former medical writers, with the view of insinuating an idea, that this Augean stable had never been cleaned till he arose upon the world to perform this Herculean labour. The fact is, however, that we find this author declaiming with loud, and, we may add, even arrogant observations, where his opinions neither differ from the generally received theory, nor his method of cure, in general, from the established practice. Dr. Robertson seems to consider *febrile infection* as a new term; but from this

we

we must dissent, even with regard to the particular acceptation to which he restricts it. There is, besides, much reason to question the universality of that infection which he so positively ascribes to fevers; as such an opinion is not confirmed by medical observation, either in this country, or in others on the continent of Europe.

The following extract from the author's account of the affections of the system which, he says, he has observed in febrile infection, will justify our sentiments on this subject:

‘ S E C T. I.

‘ *The General Affections.*

‘ The intellects are affected to a very great degree, even to perfect mania, for more or less time; the memory destroyed, as well as perception and attention. Great indifference, or dullness, or uncommon quickness; depression of spirits, languor, fear, anxiety, and despair, in various degrees, predominate.

‘ The nervous system with extreme debility, partial or universal paralysis, or hemiplegia, or hemiparalysis, or subsultus tendinum, or convulsive twitches, laughing, singing, grumbling, unnatural speech or voice, or muttering.

‘ The skin with different degrees of heat, dryness, and roughness; with sensation of alternate chills and heat; with partial or general perspiration and sweat, cold, hot, watery, greasy, or clammy; a recking moisture; frequent alterations of these; many eruptions, besides petechiæ, maculæ, or vibices; with sallowness, yellowness, and, at times, lividity; and with separation of the cuticle and cutis.

‘ The secretions and excretions, or natural evacuations, with preternatural colour, consistence, quality, diminution, or abundance, or temporary suppression; less or more offensive to the smell, especially the urine, stools, perspiration, and expectoration; worms voided both by vomit and stool; a degree of salivation, and suffusion of tears, likewise occur.

‘ S E C T. II.

‘ *The Particular Affections.*

‘ The brain with sensation of general confusion, heaviness, lightness, giddiness, coma, pervigilium, and the various modifications of delirium.

‘ The head with partial or universal pain or aching.

‘ The countenance, besides presenting the generally diseased appearance, is either flushed, or fallow, or icteric, or bloated, or partially swelled, or appears greasy, sooty, or squalid.

‘ The eyes are affected with sensation of fire darting from them, with a livid circle round them, with diminution of sight, even to blindness in the paroxysm, with dilatation of the pupils, with sinking in their orbits, with a lifeless appearance, with an enraged appearance, with an effusion of tears, particularly at the external canthi,

which become dirty, or acquire the consistence of pus; and sometimes they are very much bloodshot.

‘The ears with deafness, *tinnitus aurium*, pain, or impositumation.

‘The nose with eruption, with distension and collapion of the alæ; sharpness, paleness; with coryza, and offensive smell to the sick; and with hæmorrhage.

‘The mouth, *externally*, with various eruptions; the lips with paleness or lividness, or convulsive twitches, or with motion, as if the sick were tasting something: *internally*, with aphthæ, or with bitter taste; more or less dryness, causing incessant thirst; and with fordes, which also cover the teeth and lips.’

While we express our disapprobation of some of Dr. Robertson’s systematical remarks, and particularly of the didactic manner with which he inculcates them, we are ready to acknowledge that the essay contains many observations, well-founded and useful in practice.

Art. IX. *A Letter to the Societies of United Irishmen of the Town of Belfast, upon the Subject of certain Apprehensions which have arisen from a proposed Restoration of Catholic Rights. By W. Todd Jones, Esq. with the Declaration of the Catholic Society of Dublin; and some Thoughts on the present Politics of Ireland, by Theobald McKenna, M. D.* pp. 172. 8vo. 3s. Robinsons, London, 1792.

THIS is a very curious piece; and there are few that read it but will own that they have received instruction. The petition of the Catholics for the complete rights of citizens is temperate and modest, but manly and firm, and will certainly in the end meet with success. The majority of a people supplicating the minority for the enjoyment of equal civil rights, is a remarkable phenomenon in the history of the world.

Mr. Jones’s letter exhibits an unusual scene, a *Protestant* pleading the cause of the injured *Catholics*. His letter does honour both to his understanding and his heart: a more able advocate it would have been difficult for them to find. The impression made by his historical details on every candid and impartial reader must be pity, astonishment, and indignation; *pity* for the wretched Catholics, whose sufferings have been extreme; *astonishment* that they have borne their sufferings with such a degree of patience; and *indignation* against the vile despotism, avarice, and cruelty, of those men, who, instead of being careful shepherds, have proved ravenous wolves. The long-continued and repeated acts of barbarity, rapine, persecution,

tion, and every species of civil and ecclesiastical oppression which, according to Mr. Jones, the Irish have suffered since the conquest of their country by the English, have no parallel in the history of Europe during the same period. Had not Mr. Jones been particular in assigning his authorities (and most of them are incontrovertible), his historical details would not have gained belief: but now it cannot be withheld. As people in general are but little acquainted with historians of the Catholic persuasion, their knowledge of Irish affairs is exceedingly imperfect; and the representation of the state of things in that country, as given by English writers, tends more commonly to mislead than to inform. To all such this letter will be exceedingly useful, as an antidote to former prejudices; and it will inspire thoughts and sentiments widely different from those that they entertained before.

Dr. McKenna's letter does him very much honour. He is a sensible, moderate, well-informed Catholic, and appears to be well acquainted with the real interests of his country, and to have them much at heart. After exposing the fallacious system that has long been adopted in regard to the sister kingdom, he proves, in what many will deem a very satisfactory manner, that a compliance with the petition of the Catholics would be productive of the happiest consequences to all the people of Ireland without distinction; and so far from laying the foundation of future animosity and dissension, it would advance the prosperity and peace of their common country.

ART. X. *A Reply to Mr. Burke's Invektive against Mr. Cooper and Mr. Watt in the House of Commons, on the 30th of April, 1792. By Thomas Cooper.* pp. 109. 8vo. 2s. Manchester, printed for Falkner. 1792.

IN the debate above alluded to, Mr. Burke, with that unfortunate *wrong-headedness* which seems to have been his bane through life, accused Mr. Cooper and Mr. Watt of having entered into a federation with the Jacobin Club at Paris. This club he calls the worst traitors and regicides that ever had been heard of; and assures his hearers that the two gentlemen alluded to had, from what authority he knew not, undertaken to represent all England. Mr. Cooper, after expressing his surprise at being thought of so much consequence, and regretting that he owes this consequence to a character become too low for any one to derive much credit from his abuse, proceeds to shew, that the description of the Jacobins is not true; that Mr. Watt and himself were not sent from this country; and that they did

not

not undertake to represent it in that society; and, among many other things, that Mr. Burke is probably mistaken in supposing them the worst people in the kingdom, while he is alive to make the assertion.

This pamphlet is confessedly written in haste. The author speaks of his return from France about a fortnight ago; and observes, that while he justifies himself, he intrenches on moments that should be otherwise employed. This may account for the want of method every where discernible, and for his frequently expressing what has been at least as well expressed before in other publications. Indeed, the subject has been of late so repeatedly brought before the public, that we cannot expect much novelty from it. We shall therefore content ourselves with a few extracts, to shew the force of expression peculiar to this singular writer:

‘ But if it be a *crime* to wish earnestly for ‘ the fraternal union of all men, for the empire of peace, and the happiness of mankind,’ the Manchester Society, and their deputies, must plead guilty to the charge. To me, however, it appears ‘ astonishing’ (in the language of Dr. Price, and the Duke de la Rochefaucault, respecting the correspondence between the Revolution Society of London, and the French patriotic societies), ‘ if any person who has within him a spark of zeal for liberty and human happiness, should be able to read these papers without delight. We see in them the dawn of a glorious day (when should sentiments congenial to those of France prevail in Britain), two nations at the head of the world, convinced of the folly of war, and laying aside jealousies, shall embrace each other, and form a fraternal and intimate union; not for the vile purposes of avarice and conquest, but to spread the knowledge of human rights, to extend the blessings of justice and liberty, and to promote *peace on earth, and good-will toward men.*’

‘ Such are the only objects, so far as I know, of the patriotic societies of France or England, which I have at any time frequented, or with which I am connected; and they are, in fact, the only objects intended or expressed in the address which gave so much offence to Mr. Burke, and which received the panegyric of his invectives.

‘ But what must be the complexion of that man’s mind, who can be irritated to a degree of political insanity at these expressions of friendship and benevolence towards our neighbours and fellow-creatures? Who sickens at the thought of perpetual peace and fraternal union between rival nations! Who entertains no sentiments of compassion, but for the rich and the great, the kings, and the nobles of the earth! Who can contemplate, without emotion, the prospect of bloodshed and devastation among millions of the devoted victims of pride and despotism, and who bewails, with feminine lamentation, the loss of a nickname or a gewgaw, the broken play-things of a puerile nobility! Who seems to regard the *people* as fit only for the goad, and the whip, and the spur; for labour, without intermission,

in

in peace; for slaughter, without commiseration, in war. And who, blaspheming against human nature itself, impiously terms the great mass of mankind, *the swinish multitude!*'

The following passage we extract as Mr. Cooper's political creed:

'At present there is reason to believe, that about seventy or eighty persons are enabled to send an efficient majority of members to parliament; so that the House of Commons is, in fact, the representative of this virtuous band of aristocratic electors. It is not true, therefore, that this government is a government by king, lords, and commons; for the commons, or people, are *not* represented. 'The commons of England in parliament assembled,' is a phrase false and absurd; it should be, 'the deputies of the aristocracy in parliament assembled!' If a wish to reform this manifest abuse, be the same with an intention to overturn the British constitution, I most certainly admit the charge; *but I am seriously and decidedly of opinion, that, in the present circumstances of this country, no man can be justified in going farther than a complete and effectual reform in the representation of the people, and the duration of parliaments.* These are my sentiments; these are the sentiments of my political friends, whether in or out of the patriotic societies of this country, with which I am connected. If my conduct or opinions shall again be deemed worthy of public notice, I hope, after this declaration, I shall not again be pestered with the shallow, malevolent fictions of my adversaries, nor accused, without proof, of meditating designs which I thus publicly disavow.'

These passages shew the spirit of the author, which is well preserved throughout in an investigation of many of the principles of liberty and government, of the privileged orders, of representation, &c. Subjoined is an appendix, containing the resolutions of the Manchester Constitutional Society, with the correspondence between it and the Jacobin Club; together with the address of the Society for Constitutional Information to the Jacobin Club on the same subject. We have also a paper that was read before the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, entitled, *Propositions respecting the Foundation of Civil Government*; by Thomas Cooper.

ART. XI. *Remarks on Mr. Gilbert Wakefield's Inquiry into the Expediency and Propriety of Public or Social Worship.* By Anna Letitia Barbauld. pp. 76. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. London, 1792.

IT cannot appear surprising that Mr. Wakefield's attack on public worship should have called forth some able pens in its defence. The present age is sufficiently remiss in the practice of

of that and all other religious duties, to render his productions superfluous and improper; but at the same time is not yet so universally destitute of all religious feelings, as to pass over such a work without animadversion.

We are willing, with our candid authorefs, to give Mr. Wakefield every credit for the purity of his motives; and indeed, for our parts, if we consider his attempt solely as having produced the valuable pamphlet before us, we should rejoice in it. Assembly for the purpose of divine worship has been so constantly the practice of all civilised nations, whatever ideas they have entertained of the Supreme Being, that it would require arguments equally forcible as novel, to discredit the fact.

As attendance on public worship should be, what indeed it generally is, voluntary and unconstrained, it is of no avail to urge, that the public service of the day might not correspond with the occasional state of an individual's mind. The pious man will doubtless frequently offer up his humble orison in private; but that can be no reason why he should refuse to join his neighbours, to solicit for the community those real blessings which true benevolence must wish to all. If we read among the ancients of a gay and youthful libertine, who, coming into the school of a philosopher with intent to deride and laugh at his grave maxims, became so captivated with the dignity and importance of what he heard, that his soul was struck with the charms of philosophy; is it any great stretch of imagination to suppose that the religious discourses pronounced, and the sublime and pathetic passages of scripture recited in temples, or places appropriated to public worship, may have frequently operated similar effects? Are we then to shut up the avenues to so desirable a conversion, whilst vice and dissipation are continually erecting new temples to seduce the thoughtless and the idle.

We readily discover, with our fair author, that few objections can be made to public, which do not apply to private, prayer. With respect to prayer in general, it may be observed, that it is nothing more than the devout expression of our wishes; and if these arise from pure and blameless motives, it is not reasonable to suppose they can become offensive to the Divine Being. Experience proves that the exercise of prayer often produces the happiest effects upon the human mind, by calming its emotions, and restoring its confidence. Above all is its influence visible in meliorating the dispositions of the heart, upon which the nature of our actions must greatly depend. Nor, in spite of presumptuous philosophy, are we yet so well informed of the laws by which the Deity governs the universe as to be certain that our prayers can, in no instance, particularly avail. Perhaps a particular providence may exist, subordinate to a general

meral one, without that contradiction which, to finite minds, it may appear to involve; and, if we are to give credit to scripture, we must grant that the prayers of pious men, as well as their other exertions, have altered the course of impending events, not only respecting individuals, but whole nations: If, indeed, we believe in Mahometan ideas of predestination, we must then, in order to act consistently, refuse to a sick man every other succour, as well as that of our supplications in his favour to Heaven.

We have dwelt the longer in defence of prayer, both public and private, as Mrs. Barbauld seems to have been less strenuous on this head: but we cannot forbear giving her own eloquent arguments in support of the public praise of God:

‘ But supposing that we were to discard all petition as the weak effort of infirm minds to alter the unbroken chain of events; as the impatient breathings of craving and restless spirits, not broken into patient acquiescence with the eternal order of Providence—the noblest office of worship still remains:

*Praise is devotion fit for mighty minds,
The jarring world's agreeing sacrifice.’*

‘ And this is surely of a social nature. One class of religious duties separately considered, tends to depress the mind, filling it with ingenuous shame and wholesome sorrow; and to these humiliating feelings solitude might perhaps be found congenial: but the sentiments of admiration, love, and joy, swell the bosom with emotions which seek for fellowship and communication. The flame, indeed, may be kindled by silent musing; but when kindled it must infallibly spread. The devout heart, penetrated with large and affecting views of the immensity of the works of God, the harmony of his laws, and the extent of his beneficence, bursts into loud and vocal expressions of praise and adoration; and, from a full and overflowing sensibility, seeks to expand itself to the utmost limits of creation. The mind is forcibly carried out of itself, and, embracing the whole circle of animated existence, calls on all above, around, below, to help to bear the burden of its gratitude. Joy is too brilliant a thing to be confined within our own bosoms; it burnishes all nature, and with its vivid colouring gives a kind of fictitious life to objects without sense or motion. There cannot be a more striking proof of the social tendency of these feelings, than the strong propensity we have to *suppose* auditors where there are none. When men are wanting, we address the animal creation; and, rather than have none to partake our sentiments, we find sentiment in the music of the birds, the hum of insects, and the low of kine; nay, we call on rocks, and streams, and forests, to witness and share our emotions. Hence the royal shepherd, sojourning in caves and solitary wastes, calls on the hills to rejoice, and the floods to clap their hands; and the lonely poet, wandering in the deep recesses of uncultivated nature, finds a temple in every

every solemn grove, and swells his chorus of praise with the winds that bow the lofty cedars. And can he who, not satisfied with the wide range of existence, calls for the sympathy of the inanimate creation, refuse to worship with his fellow men? Can he who bids 'Nature attend,' forget to 'join every *living* soul' in the universal hymn? Shall we *suppose* companions in the stillness of deserts, and shall we overlook them amongst friends and townsmen? It cannot be! Social worship, for the devout heart, is not more a duty than it is a real want.

In one particular we may be allowed to set Mrs. Barbauld right. The Jews do not appear to us 'to have wanted the information that the acceptableness of prayer does not depend on the sacredness of any particular place.' Their sacrifices, and the observance of their more solemn festivals, were indeed confined to the temple; but we cannot doubt that other acts of devotion were held alike lawful in every place. This Moses taught, enjoining the repetition of the divine law, and its public exposition, by fathers to their children, not only in their houses, but in the roads and streets; all which we can scarcely suppose to be unaccompanied with prayer. Nay, Jesus Christ reproves them for an affected ostentation in the performance of this duty, 'being seen to pray in the corners of streets,' &c. which could not have been the case, had such a prejudice existed amongst them.

We could follow, with much pleasure, every other argument in this little work, particularly where the ingenious writer shews, that it is in the temples of religion alone that the poor and neglected classes of mankind can learn that they are of the same species with the others; where she condemns the erroneous and gloomy tenets which represent the Almighty as an avengeful tyrant, rather than as a beneficent Father, and offers judicious hints for the amendment of social worship.

Few readers of taste will content themselves without giving this little pamphlet a perusal, which, in our opinion, they can scarcely do without reaping both instruction and improvement.

ART. XII. *Sir Thomas More; a Tragedy.* By the Author of the *Village Curate, and other Poems.* pp. 132. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. London, 1792.

THE author of the present work is well known to the poetical world; at least by his 'Village Curate.' He has dedicated this tragedy to Mr. Cowper; as 'a compliment due to the liberality, candour, and humanity, of his criticism.' The work, then, has undergone the *review* of his master; and on

on this account, perhaps, he will not much regard the strictures of such men as ourselves; who have sometimes the ungrateful task to oppose the taste of writers whose abilities are nevertheless the objects of our esteem.

It is no little recommendation of this tragedy, that its fable is domestic; that its characters are familiar to our bosoms; and that its incidents are frequently such as pass in our own houses. Here are no thundering heroes and romantic heroines. The author holds a faithful mirror to nature. He has very skilfully contrived to introduce a library scene, in which the daughters of the illustrious Sir Thomas More are variously occupied; a garden scene between Sir John More, the father, and his lively grand-daughter, Cecilia; another, in which her lover and herself artlessly confess their mutual passion; a dinner scene, in which all the family are assembled; the procession of the burial of Sir John; and an affecting scene in the Tower, which passes between Sir Thomas More and his favourite daughter, Margaret.

The following scene has great merit; the moral garrulity of a happy old man, and the innocent levity of youth, are well described:

Scene changes to Sir Thomas More's Garden. Sir John More is discovered sitting on a Garden-seat. To him enters Cecilia.

Sir John. Who's there? Cecilia?

Cecilia. Yes, Sir.

Sir John. Where's your tongue?

It is not us'd to make such short replies.

Cecilia. No, Sir; but I am busy.

Sir John. What d'ye look at?

Cecilia. A little animal, that round my glove
And up and down to ev'ry finger's tip,
Has travell'd merrily, and travels still,
Tho' it has wings to fly. What its name is
With learned men, I know not. Simple folks
Call it the lady-bird.

Sir John. Poor harmless thing,
Save it.

Cecilia. I would not hurt it for the world.
Its prettiness says, spare me; and it bears
Armour so beautiful upon its back,
I could not injure it to be a queen.
Look, Sir, its coat is scarlet dropp'd with jet,
Its eyes pure ivory.

Sir John. Child, I am blind
To objects so minute. I know it well.
'Tis the companion of the waning year,
And lives among the blossoms of the hop.

It

It has fine silken wings enfolded close
Under that coat of mail.

• *Cecilia.* I see them, Sir,
For it unfurls them now. 'Tis up and gone.
But here, Sir, in my left hand I have lock'd
A prisoner still more beauteous. 'Tis a moth.
I found it on a rose-leaf. It has wings
Dappled with grey and jet, and underneath
Sleeps in a suit of scarlet. No; it wakes;
I feel it move. 'Tis eager to be gone.
Shall I dismiss it?

• *Sir John.* By all means.

• *Cecilia.* 'Tis gone,
And has left half the beauties of its wing
In dust upon my glove.

• *Sir John.* Ay, beauty's wreck
Is soon accomplish'd. Of created things
Nothing was finish'd with a tool so nice
As the moth's wing. 'Tis cover'd with fine art;
'Tis cloth'd in feathers to the quickest eye
Hardly perceptible. Yet one slight touch
Defaces all. So woman's beauty flies,
Brush'd by the hand of sorrow or mischance.
Escapes it these? Age will not let it pass.
It falls a victim to the thefts of time;
And there is nothing permanent on earth
But goodness. I have liv'd, Cecilia, long.
'Tis almost ten years since I saw fourscore.
Experience tells me beauty is a shade,
And all the pride of youth a morning cloud.
Will you be taught to be for ever fair,
Spite of old age and wrinkles? then be good.

• *Cecilia.* Dear Sir, I will, if you'll instruct me how.
For Nature made me with a sinner's hand,
And sent me to the world so ill-endowed
The eye of man o'erlooks me. None I win,
Because I want Eliza's lively bloom,
And Marg'ret's modesty. Will goodness, Sir,
Atone the loss of these?

• *Sir John.* Ay, three times these.

• *Cecilia.* Then, Sir, if I live longest, leave me your's.

• *Sir John.* Thou wilt not want it, were it more than 'tis.
Besides, our virtues are not our's to give.
Estates and chattels may from sire to son
Descend by will; but goodness none inherits:
'Tis the peculiar beauty of the soul,
And with it flies to heav'n. It must be won,
Or never worn. Thy own industrious hand
Must earn it with much labour. 'Tis the meed
And golden wages of habitual merit,

Which

Which rises early to an endless task,
And leaves it late at night.

' *Cecilia.* What task, dear Sir;
Tell me, and I'll begin it.

' *Sir John.* 'Tis begun.
Do as thy father bids thee, 'twill proceed.

' *Cecilia.* I wish he was at home. Sir, will you walk,
And look out for him at the garden gate?
I think he'll come by water.

' *Sir John.* Go before.
I'll follow after with what speed I can.

' *Cecilia.* No, Sir, we'll go together. Here's your staff;
The other hand shall rest upon my arm.' [Exeunt.]

The dinner scene presents us with an extremely pleasing picture. The character of Cecilia, composed of levity and sensibility, is well sustained in her dialogue with Sir Thomas More:

' Scene—*Sir Thomas's Library.*

' *Sir Thomas and all his Family at Dinner.*

' *Sir Thomas.* Proceed we with dispatch, or I must fly
Ere we have toasted these our wedded friends.
Fleet as the hare is time, when happy man
Entreats him to retard his rapid hours;
But when in woe he prays him to be gone,
More tardy than the slow worm or the snail.
Come, happiness, to all whose hearts are one,
To wives and husbands. May ye never jar,
But live to the remotest hours of life
Concordant as the notes of fellow pipes
That sound for ever charming unison.
Cecilia, mark my lesson.

' *Cecilia.* Sir, I do,
And hope my husband will have never cause
To wish undone the fortune of to-day.
But women, let me tell him, are deceitful.
They wear a gentle aspect till they wed,
And ever after domineer. So puss
Fondles the mouse her pris'ner, with light paw
Touching his velvet coat, and purring loud
Her treach'rous promise to be ever kind.
She shuts her eyes and seems almost asleep,
Hiding the tigress in a patient smile.
But short the respite—mercy soon expires—
She springs with savage fierceness on her prey,
Fixes her teeth and talons, swears his death,
And eats him up in anger. Sir, I'll tell you
To whom the man who seeks a faultless wife

Sir Thomas More; a Tragedy.

May be compar'd. He's like the foolish boy
Who thrust his hand into a bag of vipers
To find a single eel, and thought it hard
The reptile bit him, and the fish escap'd.

' *Sir Thomas.* See, Sir, how bold and talkative a wife
You have to bear withal. 'Twas Nature's mind
To make a lawyer of my youngest daughter,
Had fashion been her friend. She has a tongue
That never rests; 'tis a perpetual clock
That needs no winding up. She was a prattler
E'en from her cradle. She would talk and laugh
From dawn to sunset, and was scarce content
To let her active wit lie still, and rest
E'en in her sleep.

' *Cecilia.* Yes, Sir, she has a tongue
That never halts for want of argument.
She can dispute, and reason, and tell tales,
As endless as the coward's vain account
Of bloody battles and heroic acts;
Or Lady Faddle's tedious history
Of her grave ancestors of Faddle-hall.

' *Sir Thomas.* Come, come, no scandal, Madam. Lash the
vice,

But ever spare the person. Of offence
Speak boldly to the ear of him who errs,
But never tell him that himself offends.
I know a lady who finds fault with others,
Yet has some little foibles in herself.
She takes of liberty too much herself,
Giving to others not enough. She loves
To laugh, and sing, and ramble o'er the field,
But prisons the poor butterfly and bird.

' *Cecilia, (rising.)* Sir, I perceive that lady is Cecilia.
Let me acquit myself. You have been looking
Into the little boxes on my shelf.
You found in most a butterfly or moth.
I had not cheated them of one small link
Of native liberty. I found them all
Just at the close of autumn; trav'ling some,
Mere harmless caterpillars, to find shelter
From the keen breath of all-consuming winter;
Some cradled in a warm ingenious shell,
And fasten'd to the windows. To them all
I lent a fostering hand, made them warm beds
Of wool and cotton, found them each a house,
And, pleas'd as Pharaoh's daughter to preserve
The little friendless Hebrew, day by day
Watch'd the return of scarce apparent life,
Sustain'd for months by nothing. At the last,
Each from his tomb arose, superbly cloth'd,

And,

And, mounting on a pair of beauteous wings,
Left me rejoicing. For the prison'd bird,
'Tis a poor goldfinch that I bought by chance
Of cruel boys, who stole it from the nest.
It could not fly, and I had much to do
To find the food it lik'd. I fed it long,
And, when I thought it fledg'd, unlock'd the cage,
And bade it fly away. It flew, indeed,
But had not heart to leave me, perching still
Upon my head, my shoulder, or my hand,
And oft returning to the cage it left.
It had been cruel to have forc'd it out.
So when the day is clear, and puffs withdrawn,
I open all my windows and my cage,
Fasten my door, and bid it go or stay,
E'en as it pleases. While I read within,
It never leaves me; when I stray abroad,
I often find it in the garden walk,
Hopping from branch to branch, happy to twit
Close at my side. And still at my return
I meet it in my chamber, or alone
Or by a friend attended, whom its tongue
Advises to be bold, but pleads in vain,
For yet it lives unmated.

Sir John. Brave defence!
Let me be judge, and be the verdict found
For the defendant. She has won her cause;
The daughter triumphs, and the father fails.
Sir Thomas. Sir, I confess it. She has well explain'd
The motives of her conduct. Had we all
Intentions good and generous as hers,
Law were a muzzled bear, that could not bite,
And lawyers beggars. Let me pay the costs.
And more, I promise ere the week expires
To yield her damages shall thrice requite
The wrong I've done her. Let it now subside.
Time hurries. I can drink but one glass more,
And hark a moment to Eliza's song,
Then I must leave you, and away to court.
Come, Sir, the King. (*They all drink the King.*)

In the soliloquy of Sir Thomas More in the Tower, the author has adroitly contrived to introduce allusions to the subjects which Shakspeare has touched with such skill; we mean the various victims who have perished in that place, which was once an English Bastile. We transcribe with pleasure this soliloquy:

** Scene changes to a Room in the Tower.*

** Sir Thomas alone.*

* Such is my home—a gloomy tenement,
And solitary as the peasant's hut
Upon the barren mountain. Not a soul
Deigns me a visit. All my company
Are toiling spiders, who consume the day
In spreading nets to catch the harmless fly,
An emblem of myself. For what am I
But a poor, helpless, weather-beaten insect,
That sought for shelter in the lowly shed,
And found within the spider tyranny.
Sometimes a mouse attends me for my crumbs:
I bid him welcome, but the whisker'd fool
Is still suspicious that I mean him wrong.
How kind was Nature, when she made the brute,
To make him cautious how he trusted man!
For such a tyrant is he, that he whets
The murderous dagger often for himself,
And ever for his brother; sparing none,
His neighbour, or his kinsman, or his friend.
'Tis all his business to destroy himself,
And all his sport to trample on the brute.
Track him in all his ways, in war, in peace,
Seeking renown upon the battle's edge,
Amusement in the closet or the field,
His footsteps are all mark'd with savage bloodshed.
Philosophy and Faith have each their sword
And murder, one for wisdom, one for truth.
The paths of glory are the paths of blood;
And what are heroes and aspiring kings
But butchers? Has not every prince his knife,
His slaughter-house, and victim? What am I
But a poor lamb selected from the flock,
To be the next that bleeds where many a lamb,
As innocent and guiltless as myself,
Has bled before me? On this floor, perhaps,
The persecuted Harry breath'd his last,
Under the sword of Gloster. Clarence here
Drank his last draught of Malmsey, and his son,
Poor hapless boy, pin'd infancy away;
All his acquaintance, sorrow and himself;
And all the world he knew, this little room.
Yes, here he sat, and long'd for liberty,
Which never found him; ending his sad youth
Under the tyrant's axe. And here, perhaps,
Assassination, at the dead of night,

With

With silent footstep, and extended arm,
Feeling her way to the remember'd bed,
Found the two breathing princes fast asleep,
And did her bloody work without remorse.
O horrible to think of! Such is man.
No beast, whose appetite is ever blood,
Wants mercy more. Shall I escape him? No.
No Marg'ret, no my daughter, no Etiza,
No my good girl, Cecilia. I must die,
And leave my widow and my house to mourn.
Sorrow will overtake you, grievous loss,
Plunder, and beggary. Would that my eyes
Might once more see you all before I go.'

We are sorry to observe the manner in which our author has delineated the character of the unfortunate Anne Bullen. We know of no authority to consider her as tyrannical in her ambition: Our author makes her say,

————— ' Were I a king,
I'd do that act, tho' to accomplish it
I pav'd my way with twenty thousand heads.'

Again: she advises the king to remove More, who will not consent to his divorce with Catherine. The king exclaims,

' What! shall I part with More? .
' *Anne.* And part for ever:
Send him to heav'n.'

These violations of history always hurt our natural feelings. Homer and Virgil, it is said, made very free with the characters of Penelope and Dido; for the first was as unchaste as the other was the contrary. But it suited the plan of their poems. Perhaps the same reason operated with our ingenious writer; being in distress for such a character, he ventured, like another Henry the Eighth, to blacken with fictitious infamy the unfortunate Anne Bullen.

This tragedy is not adapted for the stage, as its change of scene is extremely rapid, and against all the established rules of the drama. But our author is one of those who please in spite of rules. This tragedy is interesting in the closet: and we acknowledge that, in spite of all its imperfections, we have received considerable gratification from its perusal.

ART. XIII. *A Trip to Paris, in July and August, 1792.* pp. 131.
8vo. 3s. sewed. Lane. London, 1793.

AT the present critical period, when the political concussions are hourly and important, the slightest information concerning the chaotic government of France becomes peculiarly interesting. Mr. Twiss, the well-known traveller, is the author of this 'Trip.' He has endeavoured to present to the public an impartial and accurate statement of affairs; what he has undertaken he has performed; we wish he had undertaken more; for his publication has afforded us considerable amusement.

We find in it not only a narrative of the dreadful massacre of the 10th of August, and many particulars concerning the revolution, but there are also interspersed several descriptions which will be acceptable to the curious. Such are the author's notices of founding meridians—the two-headed boy—execution of criminals with a beheading machine (a plate of which is given for a frontispiece)—an account of the Botanical National Garden—and a description of the anastaticæ, or rose of Jericho, of which there is likewise a figure.

We give Mr. Twiss's account of an execution at Paris:

'The crowd began to assemble at ten in the morning, and waited, exposed to the intense heat of the sun in the middle of July, till four in the afternoon, when the criminals, a marquis and a priest, were brought, in two coaches; they were condemned for having forged *assignats*.

'The marquis ascended the scaffold first; he was as pale as if he had already been dead, and he endeavoured to hide his face, by pulling his hair over it. There were two executioners, dressed in black, on the scaffold, one of which immediately tied a plank of about eighteen inches broad, and an inch thick, to the body of the marquis, as he stood upright, fastening it about the arms, the belly, and the legs. This plank was about four feet long, and came almost up to his chin. A priest who attended, then applied a crucifix to his mouth, and the two executioners directly laid him on his belly on the bench, lifted up the upper part of the board which was to receive his neck, adjusted his head properly, then shut the board, and pulled the string which is fastened to the peg at the top of the machine, which lifted up a latch, and down came the axe. The head was off in a moment, and fell into a basket which was ready to receive it; the executioner took it out, and held it up by the hair, to show the populace, and then put it into another basket along with the body. Very little blood had issued as yet.

'The priest was now taken out of the coach, from which he might have seen his companion suffer. The bloody axe was hoisted up, and he

he underwent the same operation exactly. Each of these executions lasted about a minute in all, from the moment of the criminal's ascending the scaffold, to that of the body's being taken away. It was now seen that the body of the marquis made such a violent expiration, that the belly raised the lid of the basket it was in, and the blood rushed out of the great arteries in torrents.

'The windows of the *Place de Grève* were, as usual on such occasions, filled with ladies. Many persons were performing on violins and trumpets, in order to pass the time away, and to relieve the tediousness of expectation.'

The following are a few of the particulars of the unlicensed fury of the Parisian mob after their battle with the Swis:

'The *quais*, the bridges, the gardens, and the immediate scene of battle, were covered with bodies, dead, dying, and drunk; many wounded and drunk died in the night; the streets were filled with carts, carrying away the dead, with litters taking the wounded to hospitals; with women and children crying for the loss of their relations, with men, women, and children, walking among and striding over the dead bodies, in silence, and with apparent unconcern; with troops of the *sans-culottes* running about, covered with blood, and carrying, at the end of their bayonets, rags of the clothes which they had torn from the bodies of the dead Swis, who were left stark naked in the gardens.

'One of these *sans-culottes* was bragging that he had killed eight Swis with his own hand; another was observed lying wounded, all over blood, asleep or drunk, with a gun, pistols, a sabre, and a hatchet by him.

'The courage and ferocity of the women was this day very conspicuous. The first person that entered the Tuilleries, after the firing ceased, was a woman named Teroigne: she had been very active in the riots at Brussels, a few years ago; she afterwards was in prison a twelvemonth at Vienna; and when she was released, after the death of the emperor, went to Geneva, which city she was soon obliged to leave; she then came to Paris, and headed the Marseillois; she began by cleaving the head of a Swis, who solicited her protection, and who was instantaneously cut in pieces by her followers. She is agreeable in her person, which is small, and is about twenty-eight years of age.

'Many men, and also many women, as well of the order of *poissardes* (which are a class almost of the same species and rank with our fishwomen, and who are easily distinguished by their red cotton bibs and aprons) as others, ran about the gardens, ripping open the bellies, and dashing out the brains, of several of the naked dead Swis.

'At six in the evening I saw a troop of national guards and *sans-culottes* kill a Swis who was running away, by cleaving his skull with a dozen sabres at once, on the Pont-royal, and then cast him into the

river, in less time than it takes to read this, and afterwards walk quietly on.

‘ The shops were shut all this day, and also the theatres ; no coaches were about the streets, at least not near the place of carnage ; the houses were lighted up, and patrols paraded the streets all night. Not a single house was pillaged.

‘ The barracks were still in flames, as well as the houses of the Swiss porters at the end of the gardens : these last gave light to five or six waggons which were employed all night in carrying away the dead carcases.

‘ BEHEADING. DEAD NAKED BODIES.

‘ But to return to those ‘ active citizens, whom aristocratic influence has styled *sans-culottes*, *brigands*.’

‘ On Sunday they dragged a man to the Hotel de Ville, before a magistrate, to be tried for having stolen something in the Tuilleries, as they said. He was accordingly tried, searched, and nothing being found on him, was acquitted. *N’importe*, said these citizens ; we must have his head for all that, for we caught him in the act of stealing. They laid him on his back on the ground, and, in the presence of the judge who had acquitted him, they sawed off his head in about a quarter of an hour, with an old notched scythe, and then gave it to the boys to carry about on a pike, leaving the carcase in the justice-hall.

‘ At the corner of almost every chief street is a black marble slab, inserted in the wall about ten feet high, on which is cut in large letters, gilt, *Loix et actes de l’autorité publique* (laws and acts of the public authority) ; and underneath are pasted the daily, and sometimes hourly, decrees and notices of the National Assembly. One of these acquainted the citizens, that Mandat (the former commander-general of the national guards) had yesterday undergone the punishment due to his crimes ; that is to say, the people had cut off his head.

‘ During several days, after *the day* I procured all the Paris newspapers, about twenty, but all on the same side, as the people had put the editors of the aristocratic papers, *bors d’état de parler* (prevented their speaking), by beheading one or two of them, and destroying all their presses.

‘ They, about this time, hanged two money-changers (people who gave paper for louis d’or, crowns, and guineas), under the idea that the money was sent to the emigrants.

‘ On the Saturday morning, at seven, I was in the Tuilleries gardens ; only thirty-eight dead naked bodies were still lying there ; they were, however, covered where decency required ; the people who stript them on the preceding evening having cut a gash in the belly, and left a bit of the shirt sticking to the carcase by means of the dried blood. I was told that the body of a lady had just been carried out of the Carrousel square : she was the only woman killed, and that probably by accident. Here I had the pleasure of seeing many beautiful ladies (and ugly ones too, as I thought) walking arm in arm with their male friends,

friends, though so early in the morning, and forming little groups, occupied in contemplating the mangled naked and stiff carcases.

'The fair sex has been equally courageous and curious, in former times, in this as well as in other countries; and of this we shall produce a few instances.

The instances Mr. Twiss produces are extracted from various authors; of modern examples he has also recorded the following ones in a note:

'On the 28th of March, 1757, Damiens, who stabbed Louis XV. was executed in the Place de Grève. Four horses were to pull his arms and legs from his body: they were fifty minutes pulling in vain, and at last his joints were obliged to be cut. He supported these tortments patiently, and expired whilst the tendons of his shoulders were cutting, though he was living after his legs and thighs had been torn from his body; his right hand had previously been cut off. I was in Paris in 1768, and then, and at various times since, have been assured by eye-witnesses, that almost all the windows of the square where the execution was performed, were hired by ladies, at from two to ten *louis* each.

'Mr. Thicknesse, in his 'Year's Journey through France and Part of Spain,' in a letter dated Dijon, in Burgundy, 1776, mentions a man whom he saw broke alive on the wheel by 'the executioner and *his mother*, who assisted at this horrid business. These both seemed to enjoy the deadly office.'

'I have formerly given an account of the Spanish ladies enjoying the barbarities of the bull-fights.'

The charge here alledged against the female sex is by no means unfounded. We recollect another instance of this apathy, or, shall we say, this *delight in cruelty*, which the fair experience. A writer of merit, in his history of the plague in London, 1665, who was a witness of the melancholy scenes he describes, has made the following reflection: 'It is, indeed, to be observed, that the *women* were, in all this calamity, the *most rash, fearless, and desperate* creatures.' This feature, which has always characterised the fair sex, is also visible in *children*; and the fact has formed a problem hard to be solved by the observers of human nature.

We cannot dismiss this article without censuring that freedom of composition which our author has ever indulged. We are as great admirers as Mr. Twiss of the *franchise* of Bayle; but he should have considered, that this 'Trip' is not addressed solely to philosophers. We wish therefore that he had omitted the definition of 'the little dogs,' and the quotation from Mezeray.

ART. XIV. *The Spirit of General History, in a Series of Lectures, from the Eighth to the Eighteenth Century; wherein is given a View of the Progress of Society, in Manners and Legislation, during that Period. By the Rev. George Thomson.* pp. 434. 8vo. 6s. boards. Law, London. 1791.

THESE lectures are nine in number. The first, or, as it is called, the preliminary lecture, relates to *the Use and Advantages of History: How it should be studied. The History of modern Nations more useful than that of the ancient World. Knowledge of the latter necessary to the Study of the former. Sketch of the History of ancient Nations, &c.*

In the exordium of this lecture Mr. Thomson points out the use and advantage of studying history, fortifying his own remarks with the observations of all who have written on the subject. He then proceeds to take a rapid survey of that period which precedes the time of Charlemagne. In this survey, after a brief history of man prior to the establishment of any fixed system of government, he gives a short sketch of the history of the Egyptians, Medes, Persians, the Greeks, and Romans. He next directs his attention to a consideration of their religion, legislation, manners, arts, and sciences.

Lecture the second, *History, Laws, Manners, Customs, and Religion, of the modern Nations of Europe.*

Charlemagne having subdued those nations which, upon the subversion of the Roman empire, had possessed themselves of Italy; having also made himself master of France, Germany, the Low Countries, and a part of Spain, was crowned Emperor of the West by Pope Leo III. on Christmas-day, 800. This is the era at which Mr. Thomson commences his review of modern history. But, in order to connect the several periods of modern history, the causes of the decline of the Roman empire are stated, and an account given of those nations which were founded on its subversion. This lecture details the system of government under which the Goths, Visigoths, Saxons, Franks, Vandals, Huns, &c. lived when they invaded the Roman empire; a history of the nations which they formed after its subversion; of France, founded by the Franks under Clovis; of Spain, seized first by the Vandals, Suevi and Alains, and afterwards possessed by the Visigoths; of Italy, which Odoacer, King of the Heruli, first made himself master of, but was forced to relinquish to the Ostrogoths; and of Great Britain.—Mr. Thomson then enters into a view of the legislation, manners, and religion, of the barbarians after they had settled in Europe.

The

The remaining part of the lecture is occupied by an account of the power of the popes and the patriarchs of Constantinople; a survey of England to the time of the conquest; a biographical account of Alfred, Bede, and Alcuin; and a view of the progress of the arts in England during this period.

Lecture the Third. *Charlemagne.—Revolutions.—Governments. Manners.—Religion.—Customs.—Sciences.—The Normans.*

At the commencement of the ninth century three empires present themselves to our view. *The empire of the West*, renewed under Charlemagne, and rendered vigorous and efficient by his great abilities; *the Greek empire*, enervated by revolts, and fainting beneath the pressure of religious fanaticism, yet still supporting itself against the attempts of the Bulgarians on the north, and the Saracens on the south; and *the empire of the Saracens*, raised to an enviable height by the abilities of Haroun-al-Rasched, *the just*.

As long as Charlemagne lived, the western empire flourished, and was kept together by his activity, moderation, and abilities. His death seemed to be the signal for revolution and revolt. Under his son, Louis the Meek, the lustre of the empire was obscured. The Normans, Saracens, and Bretons, braved his power, and at his death the German empire separated itself from his house, and became elective. The successors of Louis were monarchs equally weak, and equally unfortunate. Charles the Simple, the last of the race of Charlemagne, by bestowing Normandy and Bretagne on Rollo, a Norman chief, greatly irritated his subjects. A revolution was the consequence of his misconduct, and Hugh Capet ascended the throne.

Having entered into a view of the French monarchy to this period, Mr. Thomson gives an account of the republic of Venice; of the situation of Spain during this period, ravaged by the wars between the Moors and Christians; and of the Normans to the time of Rollo. He then points out the various revolutions, and their causes; the system of government and legislation adopted by the different nations; the progress of religion, manners, and sciences; and concludes by a brief history of the northern states of Europe prior to the tenth century.

Lecture the Fourth. *Sketch of the History of the Eastern Nations.—Mahomet, his Religion, his Progress, and that of his Successors.—Laws, Manners, Arts, Chivalry.*

This lecture commences with some observations on the origin of the Chinese, Indians, and Persians. The Chinese Mr. Thomson supposes to derive their origin from the ancient Egyptians, to whom their manners and customs bear a striking resemblance. While the northern parts of Europe were spreading desolation through Europe, Mahomet, an obscure man, in the
deserts

deserts of Arabia was laying the foundation of a new religion. Without dwelling particularly on the revolution which he effected, we must be allowed to say, that for one man, neither possessed of wealth nor friends, to unite savage hordes, scattered over an almost immense tract of country, to animate them with one spirit; to overturn the power of Persia, seize the richest provinces of Asia, and all Africa, from the emperors of Constantinople; acquire an unlimited power over so vast a number of the human race, and to transmit that power to persons named by himself; is one of the most wonderful events recorded in the historic page. After a just and accurate account of Mahomet, and of the power acquired by the Saracen empire through his means, Mr. Thomson presents his readers with a detail of the customs, manners, and arts, of the East to the eleventh century. He then treats of the feudal system, and of the institutions of chivalry, which proceeded from the establishment of that system.

Lecture the Fifth. *The Crusades; Consequences of them; Events, Revolutions, Government, Legislation, Manners, Religion, Religious Orders.*

After a succinct account of the *seven* crusades that deluged the earth with blood, Mr. Thomson states the consequences that resulted from them. Their evil effects were an acquisition of power to the church, who purchased large tracts of land from the crusaders; and an increase of authority to the monarchs of the several nations, occasioned by the removal of the great feudal barons, whose interference had produced much disturbance. The benefits derived from the crusades were, a finer taste for the arts and sciences; a more eligible system of manners; the extension of commerce by the intercourse which the crusades opened between the East and West; and the establishment of corporations and municipal governments. This account is followed by a detail of the quarrels of the *Guelphs* and *Gibelines*, or the partizans of the emperors and the popes; the situation of England, France, Scotland, Spain, Portugal, and the northern kingdoms of Europe; the revolutions each nation experienced; the progress of civilisation; and the religion and laws established during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Some brief observations on the Tartars, and on the character of the victorious Gengiskan, conclude lecture the fifth.

Lecture the Sixth. *Revolutions in Kingdoms, Government, Legislation, Manners, Customs, Religion, the general Spirit of Europe. Sciences, Arts, in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries.*

The revolutions adverted to in this lecture are, first, the subversion of the Greek empire by Mahomet the Second, in 1453, after having lasted above twelve centuries; 2d, the destruction
of

of the powers of the Moors in Spain; 3d, the decrease of the papal authority. Mr. Thomson next adverts to the revolutions experienced in various governments in the system of legislation, in manners, in customs, and in religion, during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. He next points out the progress made in the sciences, and closes by a concise account of the victories of Tamerlane, and their consequences.

Lecture the Seventh. *A general View of the Sixteenth Century. Political Events.—Reformation.—Consequences of the Discovery of America.—Governments.—Legislation.—Manners.—Navigation and Commerce.—Sciences.—Beles Lettres.—Fine Arts.*

The sixteenth century, or the *seculum reformatum*, teemed with more important events than any former age. During this period, Selim united Syria and Egypt to the Ottoman empire, and put a period to the reign of the Mammaluks. His son Solyman pursuing the same mode of conduct as his father, advanced as far as Vienna, was crowned king of Persia, and made Europe and Asia bend beneath his power. In Sweden Gustavus Vasa released his country from the Danish yoke, and rendered it a great and powerful kingdom. In Russia, John Buzilowitz, laid the foundation of the importance which that empire now holds in the scale of Europe.

In Spain, Germany, Italy, and France, Charles the Fifth and Francis the First rendered their names particularly famous. In England the eighth Henry, though a monster of cruelty, paved the way for the reformation. During the pontificate of Leo the Tenth, Luther attacked the tenets of the Church of Rome, and tore off the bandage which had so long blinded the eyes of mankind. In this period America was discovered, and men advanced by rapid strides towards perfection in the arts and sciences. But these intellectual improvements did not produce the consequences which might naturally have been expected to result from them. The sixteenth century arrested the progress of liberty, and the nations of Europe became oppressed by the most abominable system of slavery. Charles the Fifth and Francis the First, the luminaries of Europe, were despots, and used their utmost endeavours to enslave their subjects. The first undermined the liberties of the Germanic body; and the second, by annihilating the rights of the nobility, completed the slavery of France. Under the inhuman Henry the Eighth, and the bloodthirsty, bigotted Mary, the English cowardly and tamely surrendered their rights, and contented themselves with acceding, both in sentiment and conduct, to that most infamous of all doctrines, the doctrine of passive obedience and non-resistance. Switzerland and Geneva were the only spots in Europe

where liberty was permitted to find rest for the sole of her foot. Mr. Thomson's account and observations on the events of this century are commendable.

Lecture the Eighth. *Religious Sects.—Revolutions in Kingdoms.—Government.—Legislation.—Mechanic Arts.—Sciences.—Philosophy.—Belles Lettres.—Fine Arts.*

The exordium of this lecture is occupied by an account of the progress of Lutheranism and Calvinism, and the doctrines of Baius, Molina, and Arminius. Mr. Thomson next proceeds to detail the revolutions that occurred from the middle of the sixteenth to the beginning of the seventeenth century. In his account of the causes that produced the republic of Holland, he takes occasion obliquely to animadvert in a note on Mr. Burke's pamphlet. 'The principles and sentiments,' he says, 'of a pamphlet on the revolution of a neighbouring nation, lately published, and its numerous admirers, shew, that those who boast of their own liberty, are either ignorant of the rights of mankind, or, from a selfish principle, do not wish that other nations should enjoy them to the same extent they do.'

The period to which this lecture relates, produced no beneficial change in the system of legislation or government. The arts and sciences, however, continued to flourish, and commerce described around her a circle more ample and extensive.

Lecture the Ninth. *Revolutions.—Governments.—Religions.—Navigation.—Commerce.—Philosophy.—Sciences.—Morals.—Literature.—Fine Arts.*

The seventeenth century produced the revolution in Portugal which severed that kingdom entirely from Spain. The court of Vienna lost all its influence, and crouched beneath the feet of France. England, by the decollation of Charles the First, was converted into a republic. On the death of Cromwell, however, the monarchical system was again established, and Charles the Second ascended the throne of his ancestors. Another revolution occurred after the death of the second Charles, whose brother, on account of an attempt to subvert the established religion, was forced to abdicate the crown, which was presented to the Prince and Princess of Orange, the latter being the daughter of James the Second.

The system of government and legislation received no improvement in Europe during this period, except in England, where the abdication of James produced the celebrated *Bill of Rights*, which prescribed limits to the prerogatives of the crown that had not, till that period, been properly ascertained. The provisions, however, contained in this act have, by the venality of statesmen, and the interested compliance of parliaments, been shamefully evaded.

The

The seventeenth century produced a variety of religious controversies. Jansenius, Bishop of Ypres, attacked with great fury the doctrines of Molina, whose disciples rebutted the attack with equal warmth. A long controversy ensued, which continued during the life of Jansenius, who on his death-bed submitted his tenets to the papal decision. The Jesuits immediately anathematized them; and the consequences of this difference of opinion became at length terrible in France. During this century that peaceful sect called the *Quakers* was founded by George Fox, an English mechanic.

Commerce acquired additional resources from the improvements made in the art of ship-building.

In philosophy, Bacon, Descartes, and Gallileo surpassed all their cotemporaries. The first pointed out the road which other philosophers, particularly Sir Isaac Newton, have pursued with such distinguished reputation; the second extinguished that *ignis fatuus* of philosophy which had misled mankind for so many ages; and the third unfolded the secrets of nature by reasoning from fact and experiment.

The improvement in the sciences was equally rapid. To the seventeenth century belongs the honour of the invention of logarithms, the geometry of imaginary indivisibles, the arithmetical machine of Pascal, the explanation of the properties of the cycloids, the theory of tangents, the application of algebraical analysis, and the theory of curves. The invention of the telescope by Galileo placed the system of Copernicus on a solid foundation, and greatly facilitated the study of ASTRONOMY. Kepler acquired much reputation in the science of OPTICS; but it owes its present perfection to the *immortal* NEWTON. In the science of PHYSIC two discoveries of infinite importance were made by Hervey and Sanctorius: the first discovered the circulation of the blood; the second, insensible or imperceptible transpiration. In the discussion of MORALS Hobbes and Harrington acquired much reputation. In disquisitions on the RIGHTS OF MAN, Milton, Grotius, Puffendorf, and Locke, distinguished themselves. HISTORY began now to assume a more useful and more polished form, and to strip herself of that veil which she had received from superstition, despotism, and priesthood. In LITERATURE this century produced men of distinguished reputation—Waller, Cowley, Ben Jonson, and Dryden, in England; Cervantes and Lopez de Vega, in Spain; Richlieu, Balsac, Vocture, St. Evremond, Corneille, and Racine, in France; Guido, Albano, Salvator Rosa, Rubens, Vandyke, Rembrandt, Du Fresnoy, Mignard, Boardun, Le Brun, Le Sueur, Poussin, Inigo Jones, and Sir C. Wren, excelled in the fine arts.

We have thus completed our review of the contents of Mr. Thomson's production. After bestowing on it that degree of applause which, on account of the great fund of information it contains, it has a right to claim from us, we must point out some defects. The language is slovenly, and that of translation. If the performance is a translation, which we have some reasons for suspecting, Mr. Thomson should have referred us to the original. The different centuries are not marked with sufficient precision; nor are the great revolutions and extraordinary events distinguished by dates; an unpardonable omission.

The author has conceived the idea of an important work, but is deficient in powers for its execution. He has, however, transcribed freely from Hume and other authors, and endeavours to make up by industry what he wants in genius. With all its deficiencies and questionable originality, it may be put into the hands of youth with advantage, as an elementary work. But performances more distinguished, and of better authority, must be studied by men of riper years, if improvement, information, and instruction, are required.

ART. XV. *Memorial relative to the Invention of a new Method of Bleaching; shewing the Absurdity of any Pretensions to an exclusive Privilege for using it in the Paper Manufacture.* pp. 46. 8vo. Edinburgh: printed for William Smellie. No Price.

IN the year 1774 the celebrated Scheele discovered, that the marine acid, distilled with manganese, underwent a remarkable change, and acquired the property of discharging, almost instantly, the colours of vegetable substances, without destroying or weakening their texture. This curious fact, which is probably destined to produce a mighty improvement, or even a total revolution, in many of the most useful arts of life, seems for some time thereafter to have attracted little notice. It was the ingenious M. Berthollet, whose researches have so much extended the bounds of chemical science, that first recalled the attention of the public, and explained the practical application of the oxygenated marine acid to bleaching. His dissertations on this important subject appeared in the *Philosophical Journals* for 1785 and 1786. But to render his views more generally useful, he was at pains to compose a popular treatise in 1789, in which he lays aside all theoretic discussion, and endeavours to convey simple and full instruction to the manufacturer. An abstract of his labours was inserted in the *Annales de Chimie* for the same year. The new method of bleaching was already begun to be generally known; it was tried with success in the north of Ireland,

Ireland, and at Glasgow; and the philosophic Mr. Cooper erected a work for the express purpose, within a few miles of Manchester. An English translation of Berthollet's essay was published at Edinburgh in May 1790, by the author of this memorial. In less than a year the whole edition was exhausted; for besides its rapid sale in Great Britain, it was distributed gratis among the bleachers in Scotland, by the Board of Trustees; and among those in Ireland, by the Linen Board. To this and the subsequent edition the translator subjoined an account of some experiments of M. Chaptal, professor of chemistry at Montpellier, pointing out the utility of applying the oxygenated marine acid to whiten the coarse rags used by paper-makers. At the same time the translator offered to some of the paper-makers about Edinburgh, to superintend the trial at their mills, provided they would defray the necessary expence. They relished the proposal, but, from irresolution and various disappointments, it was late in being put in execution.

After this candid statement of the matter, which we have given partly from our ingenious memorialist, and partly from our own information, every person must be filled with surprise and indignation to see persons step forward and claim the *exclusive privilege* of a discovery to which they have not the smallest title. In the specification of the patent of Messrs. Clement and George Taylors, of Maidstone, in Kent, recorded on the 27th of July, 1792, in the Chancery of Scotland, they have the effrontery to say, that having, by 'means of great study, and much expence, discovered a new method of decomposing and removing all sorts of colours in linens and cottons, and for whitening all other kinds of linens and cottons, in different stages of the paper manufacture:—and immediately after they declare themselves 'to be the *first and true inventors* of the same, which *has never been practised by any other person or persons whatever*, as they really believe and understand.'

The patentees seem to have copied almost exactly the process described by Berthollet for preparing the bleaching liquor. Thus the ingredients to be put into the retort are stated as follows:

		Berthollet.		Taylors.
Manganese	- -	6	-	8
Sea salt	- -	16	-	16
Oil of vitriol	- -	12	-	12
Water	- -	8	-	6

The differences are quite immaterial; for the manganese is of a variable quality, and the proportion of water is, in a great measure, arbitrary. The quantity of water exposed in the receiver to receive the acid vapour, is only half as much as in

Berthollet's process; but the patentees direct the liquor to be afterwards diluted. These gentlemen have also pitched on a vessel, in which the rags are to be submitted to the action of the bleaching liquor; and this is nothing else than a large barrel churn, filled with rows of wooden pegs. We recollect to have seen the description of a similar vessel by M. Berthollet. The patentees recommend the use of alkaline ley in one stage of the process; an application which has long been well known.

The *Memorial*, of which we have given the above extract, was drawn up in consequence of a meeting of the paper-makers about Edinburgh, to consult how they might defeat this shameful patent. Though it was not intended for publication it is clear and nervous, and contains some strokes of humour. The counsel consulted on this occasion gave their opinion decidedly against the validity of the patent. Experiments were made last autumn on the whitening of rags, and succeeded admirably, though with a very imperfect apparatus. The memorial is printed on the paper made from these, and the appendix is printed on paper manufactured from rags that had not undergone the oxygenating process. The contrast is striking.

The patentees have lately offered to communicate their exclusive privilege at the price of 500*l.* *per annum* for each vat; which in Great-Britain, supposing one half the vats to comply with their terms, would amount to the handsome premium of 267,500*l.* It is to be hoped that the paper-manufacturers throughout the kingdom will resist a monopoly so mean and so flagrant.

ART. XVI. *Poems.* By G. Dyer, B. A. late of Emanuel-College, Cambridge. pp. 54. 4to. 3s. sewed. Johnson. London, 1792.

THESE verses are introduced to the reader's attention by a preface very carelessly written; in which we are told 'that Spenser, Milton, and Gray, have materially offended against the laws of propriety;' that 'the poems before us, in which the author fees imperfections, but has no time to correct them, must take their chance with the public;' and that 'his not translating, for the use of the English reader, his Greek and Latin mottoes and quotations, proceeded from forgetfulness.'

Negligent and ill-judged as this preface unquestionably is, we scruple not to pronounce it, in point of composition, far superior to the *centos* of which it is intended as the harbinger. *Centos* they literally are. Not one original thought occurs through the whole; and, what is worse, the thoughts of Milton, and Thomson, and Gray,

Gray, and Collins, are wretchedly mutilated and distorted. In the stanzas to *Liberty*, indeed, Mr. Dyer sounds a bolder note: but we wish he had confined himself, as in the preceding *odes* (for such he hath entitled them) to the poets of his youth. In the paths of *liberty*, Thomson, in particular, is considered as no mean guide. Mr. Dyer's high spirit, however, soars above the timid cautiousness of a Thomson. Attuning his *ca-ira* harp in praise of Jebb, and Price, and Lindsey, and Priestley, and Wollstonecraft, and PAINÉ, he kindles into frenzy at the view of proud democracies!

‘ Or dost thou, sweet enthusiast, choose to warm
With more than manly fire the female breast?
And urge thy *Wollstonecraft* to break the charm,
Where beauty lies in durance vile oppress?

Or dost thou from Columbus' blissful plains
Invite thy PAINÉ to rouse the languid hearts
Of Albion's sons, and through their feeble veins
Dart the electric fire, which quick imparts
Passions which make them wonder while they feel?
Auspicious queen! still show thy beauteous face,
Till BRITONS kindle into rapture!

But should'st thou scorn, at length, Britannia's isle,
Then would I pass with Penn the dang'rous sea;
Yes! I would hasten to some happier soil,
Where TYRANTS hold no rule, no slaves obey!

• • • • •
Britons no more the muse's praise shall share,
TYRANTS ABROAD, and MISCREANTS at home!

• • • • •
On Gallia's plains still linger with delight;
Oh! aid their counsels, and their battles fight.

Obe! jam satis est!—The political merit of the lines before us it is not for *Reviewers* to determine; but there is *another tribunal* to whose judgment we recommend them—unless we consign the odes to the vale of oblivion; to which, indeed, bad poetry is no sooner struck into existence, than it immediately gravitates. Thither, then (whilst their author is welcome to ‘pass with Penn the dang'rous sea’), we heartily wish them a quiet arrival; and there (to pass sentence in the bard's own words), ‘for ever sleep, false, feeble lyre!’

ART. XVII. *A Fortnight's Ramble to the Lakes in Westmoreland, Lancashire, and Cumberland.* By a Rambler. pp. 267. 8vo. 5s. boards. Hookham and Carpenter. London, 1792.

THIS *rambler* seems to possess more good humour than genius. His are 'rapid glances;' but they are not the glances of an 'eye rolling in fine frenzy.' We have, here and there, a pleasing sketch; but it is not by the hand of a master. It is what the author would call Dutch painting; we should rather term it, coarse, vulgar daubing. In chapter first, entitled, 'A slight Touch of a Margate Hoy, not to be read before breakfast, except you have been in a Gale of Wind at Sea,' we are introduced to a *young lady* and an *old fat man*:

'An old fat man, wedged in a two-armed chair, was consoling and envying her. 'That's nice, Miss—it comes up finely—Oh! it would do me rare good!—That's bravely done, Miss!—I thought I observed, in the midst of pity and exclamations, he only wanted inducements to make himself *sick*; and, in confirmation of my surmise, he pulled a bottle of chamomile tea out of his pocket, and swigged heartily; but, with all his provocatives, he was but rewarded with some loud *bickups*, and a copious perspiration, to guard against the ill effects of which, he put one handkerchief under his wig, and *mopped* his face and hands with another. *Miss* went on bravely, and I once heard *une échappé* from the perpendicular extremity of the mouth. As for the old gentleman, he stuck close to his seat, and complained most bitterly that he could not be sick.

'The Queen of PATTERNDALE.

'I drew my chair towards her, and called for some gin. Although it was a favourite liquor, she would not taste it, but said, 'I want some ale to *feed* my stomach, which proves it must be very nourishing, and that the *drags*, as one of our old poets calls them, turns to food.

'They drink it thick, and p—— it wondrous thin;
What stores of *drags* must needs remain within.

She loudly complained, 'that damned b—— Branfcal had put a spider in my ale, and I could not drink it, and be damned to her.'—The queen made so many attacks upon her bottle she became more noisy, and swore she had been drunk for two days; and as for going to church, 'I have not been in one for seven years.'—'Oh yes, Madam (said the landlady), you know you was, when you *smoked* your pipe in church.'—'Oh! damn it, I recollect that; he was preaching how we should not only forgive a brother seven times, but seventy times seven.'—After every replenish, she increased in noise, and I expected we should have seen a more *saline* lake than that of Ullswater.'—'She said and sung such droll things, my tea burst through my nose, and almost choked me.'

Thus,

Thus, gentle reader, we have given thee a *smack* of the Rambler. Dost thou not *lick thy lips*?—But vulgarity is catching.

In the mean time, we are presented with a few picturesque outlines, something in the manner of KEATE :

‘ GRASSMERE, &c.

‘ Grassmere is named from a green *rump-shaped* island, on which there are many sheep, an outhouse for shelter, and occasionally a couple of cows. This verdant spot is four acres and an half in circumference, with a low shelter of trees to the south-west. The distance between Seat-Sandal and the opposite mountain, exhibits a grand canopy ; and in the valley, or the *Grain*, the road to Keswick runs. This space is rendered more solemn by dark clouds tumbling into the valley ; yet the sun piercing over them, shews a distant alp tinged with watery beauty. On approaching the eastern entrance, we observe two farm-houses, which for three months never feel the sun : the steeple, and what I can see of the church, embosomed in trees, are delightfully picturesque. May the God of heaven bless the inhabitants that perform their prayers on its rough oak benches!

‘ SALLY of BUTTERMERE.

‘ Her mother and she were spinning woollen yarn in the back-kitchen. On our going into it the girl flew away as swift as a mountain-sheep, and it was not till our return from Scale-Force, that we could say we first saw her. She brought in part of our dinner, and seemed to be about fifteen. Her hair was thick and long, of a dark brown, and, though unadorned with ringlets, did not seem to want them. Her face was a fine contour, with full eyes, and lips as red as vermilion ; her cheeks had more of the lily than the rose ; and, although she had never been out of the village (and I hope will have no ambition to wish it), she had a manner about her which seemed better calculated to set off dress, than dress her.—Ye travellers of the Lakes, if you visit this obscure place, such you will find the fair *Sally of Buttermere*.

Among his prose, the author has scattered some poetry, which, he seems to think, must please by its simplicity. ‘ The reader will be disappointed,’ says he, ‘ if he expects any or the *fine-spun thoughts* of fashionable poetry ; they are plain verses.’ True ; they are plain verses : e. g.

‘ Again we toil’d—a steep ascent
Made me with parched tongue repent
I had not dar’d to try.

Beneath our feet upon a hill,
We saw the parent of a Gill.

Or if on airy wing you fly,
Attend the *cleaving*, thirsty sigh.'

It would be unjust to charge our author with a want of originality; for who ever heard before of 'a *cleaving sigh*? Yet in several of these stanzas there is a flowing ease worth all the laboured nothings of Della Crusca:

'Eager I drew the cooling stream,
And all fatigue was gone—a dream!
Helvellyn's praise to sing:
Thy carpet was the liveliest green,
Thy sheep the swiftest I have seen,
All owing to thy spring.'

After all, we cannot but conceive this 'Fortnight's Ramble' to be unfit for the public eye. It is an unfinished performance—every where inaccurate; replete with grammatical errors. For the description, it is, in general, superficial; and with respect to the style and manner, we are sorry to observe, that the writer hath mistaken flippancy for ease, and pertness for liveliness.

ART. XVIII. *The History of Rome, from the Foundation of the City by Romulus, to the Death of Marcus Antoninus.* By the Author of the *History of France*. pp. 1460. 8vo. 3 vols. 18s. boards. Cadell. London, 1792.

THE Roman history was the study of our youthful years, and laid fast hold of our imagination, which it still retains. Whenever we turn to it, we feel that peculiar attachment which is annexed to the pursuits of the morning of life; and we are sensible of a kind of veneration produced by connecting the perusal of it with the awe which was inspired by the sovereign authority of our preceptor. Hence different sensations are excited in the mind from those that are produced by the annals of any modern nation; and we retain a distinguishing partiality for it to our latest days. But, independent of these circumstances, the Roman history lays an irresistible claim to our attention from its own intrinsic importance. It presents us with a complete whole, analogous to the different stages of human life; we are introduced to a sight of Rome in its helpless infancy; we are called to attend it from childhood to youth; we follow it from youth to manhood; and after seeing it retain for a long space of time unequalled vigour and strength, we at last discover grey hairs coming upon it, and survey its gradual decline, till in extreme old age we behold it close its eyes in death,
and

and sink into the grave. While we meditate on the mournful fate of imperial Rome, from its ashes (pardon the digression) we see with astonishment a second phoenix arise, which, like the former, advanced to maturity by slow degrees; which, while in its vigour, shook the world with its spiritual thunders, but is now, to the grief of some, and the joy of others, in the very last stage of declining years, and manifests all the symptoms of approaching death.

In regard to those qualities which give pre-eminence to this species of writing, the history of Rome stands almost unrivalled. There is no history which so much fills and astonishes the mind with the magnitude of events; no history, either ancient or modern, presents us with so many instances of dignity of character, and greatness of soul. No other history discloses, in a more striking light, the utmost strength of human passions, and all the energy of the most powerful principles of action. Ambition and the love of glory here meet our eyes in the most gigantic forms: contempt of danger, and the *amor patriæ* (the French would call it *civism*), shine forth in the utmost splendour. All the virtues of the private citizen in times of peace, and the more imposing qualities of the public character, arrayed in the insignia of office in the city, or decorated with the shining honours of a military command amidst the severer duties of the camp, and the noise of war, stand strongly marked before our wondering eyes in numerous examples. Here too we meet with remarkable changes in the form of the government, which give us an opportunity of contemplating man in different points of view, and enable us to judge how far he is the creature of situation and circumstances, and receives his peculiar cast of talents and character from the mode and order of civil society. The kingdom which Romulus founded, after seven reigns, is transformed into a republic, and the sceptred monarchs give place to annual consuls. After the revolution of many ages, we see the republic changed into an empire, and, instead of the short-lived and delegated power of consuls and tribunes, the Cæsars, clothed in imperial purple, claim the people as an inheritance, and transmit mighty Rome, with all her dependent provinces, as a paternal estate, or inheritance, to their sons, or to their favourites, without controul. In short, as history merits the encomium of Cicero, *Historia vero testis temporum, lux veritatis, vita memoria, magistra vitæ, nuncia vetustatis*, we may justly assert, that no history can claim it in a higher degree than that of his country. Every lesson for the direction of private life, and the regulation of public conduct, is here taught in the plainest and most forcible manner.

While we lament the ravages of time, of Gothic barbarism, and of monkish ignorance, there is still cause of gratitude that so many of the ancient Roman historians have escaped, and so many works of literature that throw light upon their history. Learned moderns have made the best use of these precious relics, and have presented them to the world under different forms. Some have compressed the general outlines of the most remarkable events into brief abstracts and epitomes; while others, taking a wider and more extensive range, have composed voluminous works, and endeavoured, by a judicious arrangement, to bring every thing valuable and important into view. Among this number, Rollin, our countryman Hooke, Ferguson, and Gibbon, in the latter part of the history, hold a distinguished rank.

The work before us holds a middle place between these, and bids fair for being exceedingly useful. All have not leisure to peruse Hooke; and an epitome, as Goldsmith's, though well executed, is so brief as to present little more than the mere skeleton of history. An intermediate work, therefore, like this, is very desirable. It is calculated to extend the knowledge of those who have only read abridgments; and it will refresh the memory of those who have perused the larger Roman histories of ancient and modern times. It possesses the happy medium, that it is large enough to contain the chief parts of history with some degree of colouring, and not so full as to be tedious. Concerning its extent and sources, the author thus expresses himself:

'The present performance is continued from the foundation of Rome, through nine centuries, to the death of the last of the Antonines, and terminates at the accession of Commodus: it might have been deemed presumption to have trespassed on an era which has been illustrated by the pen of a Gibbon. It has been the endeavour of the author to discriminate the fabulous parts of history from those which are entitled to our credit. Though Hooke and Ferguson have been his principal guides, he has occasionally consulted every French, and Latin historian from whom he might expect to receive information; it is with pleasure he acknowledges his obligations to Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisition concerning ancient India, and Mr. Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire; nor is it his intention to conceal that whatever merit may be ascribed to the second chapter of the third volume, must be transferred to those historians.'

We do not wonder to hear our author profess a high veneration for the last of these celebrated names, for it is evident that he is an *amateur* of Mr. Gibbon's manner of writing; and it must be acknowledged that he has imitated his style with a considerable

considerable degree of success. While we are pleased with its vivacity and sprightliness, and occasionally admire its splendour, we are sometimes offended with its obscurity or affectation; and are now and then sorry to observe our author copy Mr. Gibbon's indecency and licentiousness.

As a specimen of the author's manner and composition, we subjoin his account of the death of Julius Cæsar:

• The Romans had been bent but not crushed by the tempest of military violence; their indignation was revived by the late offer of Mark Anthony. It could no longer be concealed that Cæsar aspired to the crown; the obsequious augurs had pronounced that the Parthians could only be subdued by a king; and though Italy and the capital were to be exempted from the odious spectacle, it was expected that a decree of the senate would authorise him to display the ensigns of royalty in his progress through the prostrate provinces.

• A lively sense of this last insult to expiring freedom, roused from their inactivity an illustrious band of Romans, whose haughty spirits had ill brooked the imperious sway of Cæsar, and who now devoted their lives to the destruction of the usurper. That those who had escaped from Pharsalia from Thapsus, and from Munda, should be impatient to avenge in the blood of the victor the fate of their slaughtered associates, was neither extraordinary nor astonishing; but some surprise may be excited in finding among the conspirators those who had followed with alacrity the standard of Cæsar; had supported his pretensions by their arms; and had been adorned with wealth and honour by his gratitude. But it must be remembered, that Cæsar, in his first measures, had declared himself the protector of the people; that he had affected to arm in defence of the violated laws, and the sacred persons of the tribunes. No sooner did he openly avow his intention to subvert the established government, than he awakened the jealousy, and ensured the hatred of all who, from the lustre of extraction or genius, could aspire to political importance; or who, from principle or education, revered the authority of the senate, and the equal constitution of the republic.

• Among these the most conspicuous were Marcus Brutus and Caius Cassius, who jointly exercised, with rigid and impartial justice, the office of prætors of Rome. Their influence had gradually formed and extended the powerful confederacy; the important secret had already been imparted to near forty of their friends; the conspirators had determined to strike the blow which was to restore the liberty of the republic, in the midst of the senate; and it was supposed the presence of that assembly would give dignity and solemnity to the action. It was proposed by Cassius to include Mark Anthony in the fate of Cæsar; but the counsel was over-ruled by the humanity or policy of Brutus: 'Let us not,' says he, 'seem to act as if we were instigated by revenge, or as if we rather aimed to revive the party of Pompey than re-establish the liberties of the republic.'

• The utmost caution of the conspirators could not entirely elude suspicion. The rumour of a design against the life of Cæsar was already

already circulated through the capital; it had even reached the ears of the dictator; but he was fortified against the admonitions of his friends by a confidence in his own fortune, by a contempt for his enemies, and by an indifference to danger.

‘ If we could trust to the pages of Suetonius, the portents and prodigies which predicted the destruction of Cæsar were neither few nor doubtful. Had Cæsar deigned to have consulted his bosom, and estimated the spirit of his fellow-citizens from his own, he would have discovered, by signs less ambiguous, his approaching fate. He had invaded the laws, and insulted the feelings of his country; and as long as a spark of Roman patriotism remained, he could neither expect nor hope for safety. But the voice of reason had yielded to the insinuations of flattery, and he readily listened to the suggestions of a courtly train, who represented his fortune erected on an height which mocked the feeble attempts of revenge or ambition.

‘ The transient hesitation that was inspired by the fears of Calphurnia was vanquished by the insidious representations of Decimus Brutus: ‘ Will you adjourn the Roman senate until the wife of Cæsar has more auspicious dreams?’ was the sarcastic observation which awakened the pride, and overwhelmed the reluctance, of the dictator; he resumed his wonted spirit, and with a steady step, amidst a suppliant multitude, advanced to meet his fate.

‘ The conspirators themselves had not been without their share of alarm and anxiety; they tottered on the brink of discovery. As Brutus and Cassius, in the capacity of prætors, administered justice in the forum, they were accosted by Popilius Lænas, ‘ I pray God that the design which you have in view may succeed; but avoid delay.’ The expression sufficiently apprised them that the conspiracy was known; and while they deliberated on what measures they should pursue, their hopes were revived by the welcome information that Cæsar was proceeding to the senate. They hastened to assume their seats in that assembly, and awaited the arrival of the destined victim. On the entrance of Cæsar the conspirators could not observe without emotion, that he was in earnest conversation with Popilius Lænas, and their looks admonished each other, ‘ that it would be better to die by their own hands, than to fall into the power of their enemy.’ Their apprehensions were dissipated by the smile of Lænas; and conscious of the danger of delay, they determined on the immediate execution of their enterprise.

‘ As the dictator assumed his chair, near the pedestal of the statue of Pompey, he was arrested by the suppliant posture of Tullius Cimber, who entreated the pardon of his brother; while Cæsar resisted the solicitations of Cimber, he received in his neck the dagger of Casca. He started from his seat, and turned to seize the assassin; thirty daggers glittered before his eyes; yet, unarmed and unassisted, he still stood at bay, and like a lion rushed upon his hunters, when he beheld amidst the assailants the countenance of his beloved Brutus: ‘ Art thou too there?’ was the short exclamation, which might reproach his own credulity, or the ingratitude of Brutus. He instantly abandoned all farther resistance, and covering his knees with his robe,

that he might fall with greater decency, sunk pierced with twenty-three wounds. The statue of Pompey was sprinkled with his blood; nor did superstition fail to observe, that he at last expired before the image of that rival whom he had betrayed, oppressed, and sacrificed to his ambition.'

The characters of Brutus and Cassius are well drawn. Of Brutus he says,

Brutus was the nephew of Cato, by his sister Servilia: but Servilia had scorned to imitate the strict virtues of her brother. Her contempt of chastity, and her connexion with Cæsar, had provoked the scandal of Rome; and, above disguise, she avowed the object of her licentious desires, and gloried in the infamy of her conduct. Her husband had been associated in the hopes, and involved in the ruin, of the party of Marius; and the early years of Marcus Brutus were committed to the stern tuition of his uncle Cato. By his care he was trained in the study of polite literature, of eloquence, and of philosophy; and from him he had imbibed the most just ideas of the dignity of human nature, an ardent love of freedom, and a magnanimous disdain for life. His father had been executed, at least by the connivance, if not by the command, of Pompey; and the filial piety of the son was displayed in the resentment which he cherished against that leader. In the prosperous fortunes of Pompey, Brutus had never condescended to speak to or salute him; but no sooner were the banners of civil discord unfurled, than he sacrificed his private revenge to the public good; and followed the standard of the chief whose person he detested, but whose party he approved: with him he beheld the disastrous field of Pharsalia. Amidst the exultation of victory the mind of Cæsar was still anxious to preserve the son of Servilia; and the concern he betrayed at his danger, and the joy which he expressed at his safety, might authorise the popular opinion which ascribed the birth of Brutus to the amorous intercourse between Cæsar and Servilia. The supposition is weakened, if not destroyed, by an appeal to their mutual ages; Cæsar was in his fifty-sixth, and Brutus in his forty-first year. Nor is it probable that the former had ascended the guilty bed of Servilia before he had attained the age of fifteen. Yet grateful to the affection of the mother, he watched with tender solicitude over the fortunes of the son. He had appointed him to the government of *Asalpine Gaul*, and preferred him to the dignity of prætor of Rome. Yet every favour was poisoned by the lawless claim of the donor. His admiration of Cato; his marriage with Porcia, the daughter of that virtuous patriot; the fame of his namesake, who had delivered Rome from the iron rod of the Tarquins; the sense of his own servile condition; but, above all, the injuries which had been offered to his country, rose incessantly to the mind of Brutus; he blushed at his own ignominious patience; and his indignation was inflamed, and his resolution confirmed, by the conversation and congenial sentiments of *Caius Cassius*.

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The outlines of the character of Cassius are briefly sketched in the following words :

‘ Caius Cassius was descended from one of the most ancient and honourable families of the republic, and was early distinguished for his high and determined spirit. While yet a boy, and when Sylla was in the height of his power, he had struck the son of the dictator for having said, that ‘ his father was the master of the Roman people.’ The tutor of young Sylla complained of the insult to Pompey; and Cassius, on being questioned by the latter, boldly replied, ‘ Let him repeat the words, and I will strike him again in your presence.’ His wit, his learning, and his temperance, were universally acknowledged and esteemed; and his skill and courage had been established in repeated conflicts with the Parthians. In the commencement of the civil war he had conducted the squadrons of Syria to the support of Pompey; and, even after the unhappy fate of the latter, had projected the destruction of the victor, who avoided the snare by landing on the opposite side of the Cydnus from that on which he was expected. Disappointed in his design, Cassius had suspended all farther opposition, and retired to Rome, where his marriage with Tertulla, the sister of Brutus, had strengthened the bonds of political by those of domestic union.’

Such were the leaders of those stern republicans who plunged their daggers into the heart of Cesar. Such were the prototypes of Count Ankarstrom, who appears to have been actuated by similar motives. Whether his name will be placed near theirs in the annals of fame, is a matter that must be left to the decision of posterity.

Some may think that our author ought to have mentioned his authorities at the bottom of the page. It certainly would have been more satisfactory; but taking the work as it is, it is well-written, entertaining, and instructive; and we doubt not will meet with the approbation of the public.

ART. XIX. *The History of France, from the first Establishment of that Monarchy to the present Revolution.* pp. 1445. 8vo. 3 vols. 18s. boards. Kearsley. London, 1790.

NOTHING seems so easy as to compile; and history being only a compilation, nothing may seem so easy as the historian’s task. Yet from the time of Herodotus, the great father of history, how few have succeeded in these compositions. Whether this valuable author, by collecting the materials himself, and writing as his fancy, memory, or inclination, dictated, contrived to make his history always interesting; or whether it

it arose from his caution in selecting his subjects; we shall not take upon ourselves to determine. But certain it is, that those who have followed him, and had the advantage of improving by his example and errors, have rarely equalled his perspicuity, and still less his talent at arresting the attention. It must be acknowledged, that as the volume of history increases, the labour of the historian becomes more complicated, the difficulty of retaining the chain of events and distinction of characters increases, and their great variety renders each less interesting. On this account such authors who have been anxious to produce a work that might outlive themselves, have rarely ventured on more than the history of an individual, or a particular period. In the choice of these, they have been careful to select such as might elucidate certain events, the complicated nature of which obliged other historians to relate them obscurely, or divested of all the smaller, yet not less interesting incidents.

After this exordium, our readers will not suppose we have much to say in favour of a history of France in three octavo volumes; in which the author attempts to trace the first establishment of that monarchy, and bring down his account to the present revolution. It may perhaps be urged, that enough may be said in this place of what is worth reading. If we were to admit this, we must still complain that our author's attempt at giving the whole, has obliged him to reduce all to an epitome; and his fondness for imitating the style of popular writers, has rendered what little he has given us, in many instances, unintelligible. His talent seems in compressing every thing into a small compass. Scarce a circumstance is omitted, not only of what relates to France, but frequently of the transactions of all Europe; and if our readers could undertake to get the whole by heart, with the dates, they might be pretty generally ready at chronology, sometimes at genealogy, and always at blockades, sieges, and captures. The Duke of Marlborough was so great a general, that few ever attempted to keep pace with him. Our author we shall find quite a match for him:

‘ But *these* incessant efforts [they are all contained in four lines] exhausted a frame naturally weak [William the Third's]; a fall from his horse quickened the progress of disease, and in the fifty-second year of his age he yielded up his throne and life. The former was immediately filled by Anne, the daughter of the unfortunate James, and who had married the Prince of Denmark; and the new Queen dispatched the Earl of Marlborough to the Hague, to assure her allies that she would adopt and support the engagements of her predecessor.

‘ That nobleman was soon after appointed to the command of the allied army, and displayed that military skill which he acquired under the

the Marechal Turenne. Boufflers, to whom Lewis had entrusted his grandson, the Duke of Burgundy, to train to war, was confounded by the rapid and complicated movements of his adversary. He evacuated Guelderland, retired under the walls of Liege, and finally sought shelter in Brabant; while Venlo, Ruremonde, and Liege were successively reduced by Marlborough.

In Italy Prince Eugene, by a daring and well-concerted march, had surprised Cremona, and taken Marechal Villeroy prisoner. After an obstinate conflict he was expelled again the town; suffered some loss at Santa Vittoria; and in the battle of Luzara was encountered by the Duke of Vendome. That prince, in whom martial activity and indolence were wonderfully blended, was distinguished by talents worthy the grandson of Henry the Fourth; and though in the battle of Luzara the loss on both sides was nearly equal, yet Vendome claimed the advantage, and maintained it by the reduction of Luzara and Guastalla.

On the banks of the Rhine a more decisive victory was obtained over Prince Lewis of Baden, by the Marechal Villars; and soon after in the plains of Hochstet, in concert with the Elector of Bavaria, he charged and routed the Imperial general Count Styrum: three thousand of the Imperialists were left dead on the field, four thousand were taken prisoners with their cannon and baggage; while Marechal Tallard, near Spire, engaged and defeated the Prince of Hesse.

In the midst of this success France was alarmed by the desertion of the Duke of Savoy, who obtained from the Emperor the promise of Montferrat, Mantua, Valencia, and the countries between the Po and the Tanaro. At the same time the enemies of the house of Bourbon were increased by the declaration of Peter the Second of Portugal, who acknowledged the Archduke Charles as sovereign of Spain.

The Duke of Marlborough, with increase of dignity and the applause of his country, had returned to Flanders, possessed himself of Bonn, the residence of the Elector of Cologne, retaken Huy and Limbourg, and made himself master of the Lower Rhine. Marechal Villeroy, redeemed from captivity, in vain endeavoured to check his progress, and was soon after deceived by his masterly address. To succour the Emperor, oppressed by the joint forces of France and the Elector of Bavaria, Marlborough rapidly marched into the heart of Germany, and traversing the Rhine, the Maine, and the Necker, was met at Mindelheim by Prince Eugene, who had quitted Italy to assume the command of the Imperialists on the banks of the Danube.

Villars had been recalled to wage an inglorious war in the mountains of the Cevennes against the unhappy protestants, whom the persecution of Lewis had forced into revolt; and the glory of France was entrusted to Marechal Tallard. The lines of the Elector of Bavaria, near Donawert, had been forced by Marlborough with considerable loss; but the appearance of Tallard inspired that prince with fresh confidence. It was determined to risk the fate of the war

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on a decisive battle, and the French and Bavarians with superior numbers advanced to attack the confederates, who effected a junction with the Prince of Baden. But the plains of Höchstet, which had so lately witnessed the triumph of Villars, were rendered memorable by the defeat of Tallard. That general was vanquished by the superior skill of his adversary; he himself was taken prisoner, with fourteen thousand of the bravest troops of France; twelve thousand perished by the sword, or were precipitated into the rapid stream of the Danube; and of an army of sixty thousand men, scarce twenty thousand could be collected from its broken remains.

The battle of Höchstet, better known in England by the name of Blenheim, exposed to the ravages of the victors the electorate of Bavaria; and Lewis once more summoned the Mareschal Villars to the scene of his former glory; an accommodation had restored the inhabitants of the Cevennes to their allegiance; and the conduct of Villars proved him an adversary worthy of Marlborough. He occupied a strong camp, remained on the defensive, and by his prudent measures compelled the Duke to relinquish his design of penetrating into France by the course of the Moselle.

The States, anxious for their frontier, soon prevailed on the Duke of Marlborough to return to Flanders; and Villeroi, who had taken Huy, and was preparing to besiege Liege, abandoned the enterprise on the intelligence of his approach. Huy was again compelled to surrender to the confederates; and the lines of Villeroi were immediately after forced. That general crossed the Geete and Dyle with precipitation; but the strong ground he judiciously occupied prevented the allies from improving their advantage; and he shortly after restored his reputation by the reduction of Diest.

The numerous armies of the empire on the banks of the Rhine were baffled by the skill of Villars; and in Italy the Duke of Vendôme incessantly pressed Prince Eugene and the Duke of Savoy, fought the bloody but indecisive battle of Cassano, gained that of Cassinato, and even menaced Turin with the horrors of a siege. But in Spain the allies, who had proclaimed the Archduke Charles king, obtained the most rapid and splendid advantages: the Earl of Peterborough possessed himself of Barcelona; all Catalonia ranged itself under the banners of the house of Austria, while Gibraltar, which the year before had been wrested by the English from Philip, secure in her native strength, defeated the vain and feeble efforts of the Mareschal de Tessé.

If our readers have been able to keep pace with all this, we congratulate them on the occasion. Ovid, it is true, thought it necessary to introduce all the metamorphoses that were supposed to have happened from the beginning of the world to his own time; and his ingenuity is much admired for the happy manner in which he contrives to connect them. But, luckily for him, metamorphoses have been less numerous than military and other historical events, otherwise our author would far have exceeded him.

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The last volume is said to have been written by a different hand. But unfortunately the writer conceived it his duty to imitate the style of his predecessor. In this he has succeeded to admiration. All the eventful period of Lewis the Fifteenth's long life, including his minority; the transactions of all Europe during the general war that so long wasted the continent; the rebellion in Great-Britain; the early remonstrances of the parliaments in France; expulsion of the Jesuits, &c. &c. are contained in eighty-three pages. The reign of the late unfortunate monarch is the best part of the work: but, though not deficient in perspicuity, it wants that force of language, and closeness of detail, which the importance of the events, and their very recent transaction, entitles them to.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For JANUARY 1793.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 20. *A Narrative of the Proceedings relating to the Suspension of the King of the French on the 10th of August, 1792.* By J. B. D'Aumont. pp. 28. 8vo. 1s. Manchester: printed for Falkener. 1792.

THIS narrative is given in a letter from the author, who calls himself an eye-witness, to Mr. Cooper of Manchester. We shall not attempt any thing more than announcing the contents of the book, and observing, in the general, that as citizen d'Aumont could not easily have been present at all the transactions, he would have done well in telling us which he saw, and which he takes on trust.

The narrative is, for the most part, minute, not only as to the events of the day, but the preliminary circumstances that lead to them.

The appendix contains, first, Condorcet's reflections on the English revolution 1688, and that of the 10th of August, 1792; remarking those particulars in which they agree, and such as, in the opinion of the writer, give the advantage greatly to the last. 2dly. The address of the National Assembly to the people, containing an exposition of the motives which induced them to proclaim the convocation of a national convention, and to decree the suspension of the executive power in the hands of the king.

The narrative is written in English by the author; the appendix is translated, but not without errors and Gallicisms. In the last piece is a remarkable blunder, in which the French *parens* is translated *parents* instead of *relations*; and the King of France's parents are reckoned among the emigrants and enemies to the revolution.

ART.

- ART. 21. *The whole Proceedings on the Trial of Thomas Paine for a Libel upon the Revolution and Settlement of the Crown and Regal Government as by Law established, &c. &c. Tried by a Special Jury before the Right Hon. Lord Kenyon. Taken in Shorthand by Joseph Gurney. Second Edition. pp. 196. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Gurney. London, 1793.*
- ART. 22. *The Genuine Trial of Thomas Paine for a Libel, contained in the Second Part of the Rights of Man. Tried before Lord Kenyon, &c. with the Speeches at large of the Attorney-General and Mr. Erskine; also authentic Copies of Mr. Paine's Letters to the Attorney-General on the Subject of the Persecution. Taken in Shorthand by E. Hodgson. Second Edition. pp. 143. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan. London, 1793.*
- ART. 23. *The Trial of Thomas Paine, before Lord Kenyon and a Special Jury; when he was convicted of a Libel, published in the Second Part of the Rights of Man. pp. 64. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Owen, London, 1792.*
- ART. 24. *The Trial of Thomas Paine for writing a Libel, called The Second Part of the Rights of Man, before Lord Kenyon, at Guildhall. pp. 42. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bell. London, 1792.*
- ART. 25. *Trial of Thomas Paine for certain scandalous Libels inserted in the Second Part of the Rights of Man. Fourth Edition. pp. 74. 8vo. 1s. Richardson. London. No Date.*
- ART. 26. *Trial of Thomas Paine for a Libel, &c. &c. pp. 45. 8vo. 1s. Kearsley. London, 1792.*
- ART. 27. *The Trial at large of Thomas Paine, for a Libel, before Lord Kenyon. By a Student of the Inner-Temple. pp. 28. 8vo. 6d. Ridgway. London. No Date.*
- ART. 28. *Trial of Thomas Paine for certain false, wicked, scandalous, and seditious Libels; tried before Lord Kenyon, &c. &c. pp. 47. 12mo. 6d. Sold No. 20, Pater-noster-Row.*

Such has been the interest which the public has taken in the fate of Mr. Paine; that it has produced no fewer than eight accounts of his trial, printed for different publishers. Of these we have given 'the Titles.' They all state the pleadings and principal facts. But as Mr. Gurney has the highest reputation for accuracy and facility in shorthand, we should, upon the whole, prefer his account of this celebrated investigation.

- ART. 29. *Mr. Paine's Principles and Schemes of Government examined, and his Errors detected. pp. 60. 8vo. 1s. 6d. sewed. Cuthell. London, 1792.*

This gentleman takes up with a warmth natural to a patriot, when he comes forward in defence of his country, which every lover of good order should support. The impartiality, however, of his investigations, and the justness of his conclusions, are to be doubted. He paints Mr. P— as

Envy that sickens at another's joys.

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Party

Party opinions (if every book published on the different sides could be perused) might leave a man without leisure to reflect on any other subject conducive to the peace or advantage of his mind.

ART. 30. *Points of Law and Equity; selected for the Information, Caution, and Direction, of all Persons concerned in Trade and Commerce.* 8vo. Cadell. London, 1792.

Abridgments of every branch of jurisprudence are only of utility to those who have made considerable proficiency in the science. As they exhibit cases divested of their circumstances, and decisions independent of arguments, they confound the ignorant, and mislead the unwary. Instead, therefore, of advising merchants and tradesmen to rely upon the information contained in this selection, for a speedy extrication from the labyrinths of law, we would recommend to them to call in the aid of some able practitioner, who will direct their footsteps with greater security and accuracy, and consequently with a more certain prospect of success.

ART. 31. *Trial between — Mead, Esq. Barrister at Law, Plaintiff, and the Rev. Mr. Daubney, Defendant.* pp. 44. 8vo. 1s. Owen. London, 1792.

If the disclosure of family transactions is sometimes indelicate, the concealment of family crimes is as often immoral. Among near relations the strictest attention to their reciprocal duties is absolutely requisite for the preservation of mutual good-will. The defendant, for the eventual gratification of his avarice, seems to have attacked the reputation, and sported with the feelings, of those whom he was bound, by every tie, to befriend and protect. Mr. Mead thought it necessary to appeal to the laws of his country for redress: and the jury have given their sanction to his conduct, by finding a verdict in his favour, with 500*l.* damages.

ART. 32. *Short Account of the Revolt and Massacre which took place in Paris on the 10th of August, 1792; with a Variety of Facts relative to Transactions previous to that Date, which throw light on the real Instigators of those horrid and premeditated Crimes: to which is prefixed a Plan of the Palace of the Tuilleries and its Environs. By Persons present at the Time.* pp. 42. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. London, 1792.

This long title is sufficient to teach our readers the contents and spirit of the pamphlet. We shall only observe, as it is anonymous, we have no certainty that the persons *present* were not *present* in London.

- ART. 33. *Rights for Men; or, Analytical Strictures on the Constitution of Great-Britain and Ireland.* By Robert Applegarth. pp. 45. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardson. London, 1792.

We have before now had reason to respect the writings of Mr. Applegarth, and on this occasion expected a more than ordinary exertion of his talents. But this pamphlet is the most contemptible of the kind that has come to our hands. As if men had nothing at stake but property, the author cannot see why any should send representatives who have no property; and even doubts whether elective franchises should not bear an exact proportion to property; that is, whether a man possessed of one hundred pounds a year should not have fifty votes to that freeholder's one who is in possession of only two pounds a year. Does Mr. Applegarth recollect, that the rich man can always find protection from his wealth; but it is the poor man who is in danger of being oppressed, and for whom the wisdom of our ancestors provided the trial by jury. But what is this to our author's observation on the privileges of women to vote. 'If ladies,' says he, 'were allowed to vote, it is to be feared that few besides men of gallantry would be able to get seats in parliament.' A censure so indecent, as well as unprovoked, is highly unbecoming the gravity of our author's function, and the importance of the subject on which he pretends to reason.

- ART. 34. *The Necessity of associating for the Purpose of obtaining a parliamentary Reform. enforced in an Address to the Freeholders and Inhabitants of Hertfordshire.* By a Freeholder. pp. 28. 8vo. 1s. or 9s. a Dozen.

The freeholder's remarks are acute and convincing. But is there any man to whom additional arguments are wanting to convince him of the necessity of a reform in the representation of the people?

- ART. 35. *Remarks on the Proceedings of the Society who style themselves 'the Friends of the People;' and Observations on the Principles of Government as applicable to the British Constitution.* In two Letters to a Friend. pp. 93. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1792.

The author of these remarks attempts, unsuccessfully we think, to prove that there is no need of a reform in the representation of the people. In answer to his observations we shall say, that it is not sufficient to prove that the people, by the want of a reform, are not unhappy—it ought to be proved, that they would not be more happy if a reform were to take place.

- ART. 36. *The Battle of Eddington; or, British Liberty: a Tragedy.* &c. pp. 118. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Elmsley. London, 1792.

The plot of this political tragedy is founded upon a well-known part of English history; but the conduct of the drama is perplexed, the versification tame and prosaic, the sentiments cold and inanimate. It is written on the model of Mason's dramatic pieces, and is by no means destitute of merit.

ART. 37. *Letters to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, on his Inconsistency as Minister of India.* pp. 157. 8vo. 3s. Debrett. London, 1792.

These letters charge Mr. Dundas with great inconsistencies in his conduct with regard to India, particularly with respect to the stoppage of Shaw-Allum's tribute; the fine imposed upon Cheyt Sing; the situation of the province of Bengal; the arrangements formed by Mr. Hastings at Oude; the seizure of the government and revenues of Tanjore; the violation of the treaties concluded by Sir Archibald Campbell with the Nabob of Arcot and the Rajah of Tanjore; the conduct of the war with Tippoo; and the impeachment of Mr. Hastings. How far these charges may be repelled, we cannot pretend to determine; it is probable the subject will undergo an ample discussion when parliament meets; and we must suspend our judgment till that period arrives.

ART. 38. *An Extenuation of the Conduct of the French Revolutionists on the 14th of July, 1789, the 10th of August, and the 3d of September, 1792. By an impartial Observer.* pp. 28. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. London, 1792.

The author flatters himself that his testimony will suspend the prejudice of individuals; but we cannot encourage him in this high opinion of his own importance: he is so virulent, so abusive, and so incredible, that his book cannot do the unprejudiced reader any good, and may injure the general good order it is the duty of every subject to maintain. His abuse of the Queen of France is unmanly and indelicate. Whatever may have been the errors of that unfortunate princess, her sufferings have singularly expiated them. If, as the impartial observer says, the eyes of this country were always open to the vices of its governors, they have no need of the advice he officiously gives; it is better written than meant; and we cannot really believe this gentleman, in opposition to the radicated knowledge of facts, who greatly belies the promise he makes in the title-page,

‘ I will nothing extenuate, nor set down ought in malice.’

SHAKESPEARE.

ART. 39. *Genuine Sense; or, A Letter to the Right Hon. George English, including the Copy of a Letter from Samuel March to Robert Strickler, concerning the Advance in Journeymen's Wages.* pp. 15. 8vo. 6d. London, 1792.

The object of this letter is to teach journeymen to be content with their wages, and to avoid all combinations to raise them. With this the author contrives to bring in, some way or other, the French revolution, the king's proclamation, and the riots in Mount-street. Without examining the exact coincidence of these various circumstances, we shall only observe, that combinations to lower the price of labour are, we fear, too common among masters; that if the morals of the labouring part of the community are looser than formerly, it cannot be from larger wages, because in few branches are they advanced in proportion to the price of provisions. And though it has been

been said, that the only consequence of increased wages to the labouring poor is, that they work fewer days in the week; yet, from some knowledge of the subject, we can assert this is not generally the case. With better wages they fare better, are clothed better, and having felt the sweets of an improved mode of life, they become industrious and economic, in order to secure these indulgencies.

ART. 40. *An Address to every Briton on the Slave Trade; being an effectual Plan to abolish this Disgrace to our Country.* pp. 19. 4to. 1s. 6d. Robinson. London, 1791.

A little poem, in blank verse, proposing an effectual plan to abolish this disgrace to our country. He addresses the ladies of Britain in behalf of their 'poor chain-bound sisters:'

'Ye giddy fair!

Whose frolic feet, as pleasure tunes the string
To merry dance, treat all so light and gay,
Let mercy for a while break off the scene!

Here follows a description of the African lover following the slave-ship which bears away his mistress, and begging to accompany her as a voluntary captive; and, on being refused,

'For who regards a hero if a slave?'

he sinks in the sight of the vessel. He is very nervous in his appeals to the sensibility of Britons; and laments, in pathetic terms, his want of importance. The poem closes with advising every free Englishman to refuse giving a vote to any representative who will not swear on every occasion to be the friend of Africa. The talents of the author are not so great as his humanity; for the sake of that cause for which he is an advocate, we wish they were as conspicuous.

ART. 41. *Prepossession; or, Memoirs of Count Toloussin. Written by himself.* pp. 442. 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. Forbes. London, 1792.

Stale, flat, and trite incidents, void of all interest, instruction, or amusement—the language inelegant, and so often ungrammatical that it should seem as if it had been the production of some dancing-master who found the hours of the vacation pass 'too laggingly along.'

ART. 42. *A Vindication of a Right in the Public to a One Shilling Gallery, either at the new Theatre-Royal in Covent-Garden, or somewhere else.* pp. 40. 8vo. 6d. Owen. London, 1792.

The principal argument of this writer is, the exclusive privileges enjoyed by these patentees, which effectually excludes all from theatrical representations who are not equal to the additional expence. If it should be said, that such have no business with amusements of this kind, it is answered, that the stage is considered as a school of morality, and that morality is not less incumbent on one rank than another; that if amusements are said to soften the mind, it must

surely be politic to offer them to that class, from the coarseness of whose manners the most is to be apprehended; lastly, that the additional expence was comparatively trifling and unnecessary, inasmuch as the public was before satisfied with their accommodation at this house.

ART. 43. *A Journal kept in the Isle of Man, giving an Account of the Wind and Weather, and daily Occurrences, for upwards of Eleven Months; with Observations on the Soil, Climate, and natural Productions of that Island; also Antiquities of various Kinds now extant there; a Trait of the Manners and Customs, both general and peculiar, of the Inhabitants; an Account of their Harbours; great Usefulness of Douglas Harbour; Neglect and Want of Repairs; Description of the noble Herring Fishery, &c.: together with a large Appendix, containing an Account of the ancient Form of Government, and mild Administration of Justice, under the noble House of Stanley; with Transcripts and Extracts from the ancient Statute-Book of the Isle; together with Explanatory Notes and Observations. By Richard Townley, Esq. pp. 642. 8vo. 2 vols. 10s. boards. Whitehaven: printed for Cadell, London. 1792.*

Our readers may perceive, by the length of this title, that the author is not afraid of words. It is but justice, however, to admit, that the work performs all that the title promises, and indeed more; for besides an exact account of the weather each day, and of the length of his excursions, our author very kindly acquaints us with the state of his own health, and of his whole family. We are also informed of the soil and climate of the island. As to its natural productions, they are told in few words; antiquities do not occupy more room. But we shall give our readers the most important passage on this last subject, as it may teach them how far a perusal of the whole book is likely to reward their labour:

A most delightful morning, succeeded by a very hot day, so hot as to make noon-tide shade coveted by all.—A very late visit was paid me last night by a Manchester gentleman, who desired to introduce to me a Danish stranger, M. Thorkelin, professor of natural history and antiquities at Copenhagen, who came here, by express order of his Danish majesty, to investigate what remains were to be met with demonstrative of the Danish power and dominion formerly within the island. He addressed me with great politeness, and requested me to favour him with what discoveries I had been able to make in that line, and point out to him where they were to be met with—saying, he was informed (by some gentlemen) that I had not only been very curious in that way, but also very industrious in making researches as to the antiquities of the island in general, and especially those that respected *their* country. I remarked to him *all* the discoveries I had been able to make [we have no where met with these discoveries in the Journal] on the subject of *his* inquiries, and *where*; at the same time assuring him, that all knowledge of that kind must be very imperfect, and in a great measure conjectural, as there were but

but few written records to assist strangers in their wished investigations, or (in any degree) to elucidate the subject. He most civilly thanked me for the trifling information I was able to give him, saying, he was very sensible of the difficulties I had pointed out to him.

We are afterwards told that this Danish gentleman left the island without gaining any information. In short, he was equally unsuccessful as we have been in expecting to learn any thing from this Journal.

DIVINITY.

ART. 44. *A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of St. Margaret's Westminster. By the Rev. Dr. Vincent, Sub-Almoner to his Majesty.* pp. 17. 8vo. 1s. sewed. Cadell. London, 1792.

In the words of our author, 'If this contributes, in any degree, to promote peace, subordination, and Christian charity, no apology is necessary for intruding on the public the sentiments of an individual.' That it will forward to desirable an end, we think all who peruse this sermon cannot hesitate in declaring. The words of the text, 'Ye have the poor always with you,' are explained in unaffected plainness of language; the impossibility of extirpating poverty from society, and the necessity of its existence, are evinced from the authority of our Saviour; and our author's arguments merit the serious perusal of every man who is unfortunate enough to be dissatisfied with his situation in this life.

ART. 45. *A Discourse, occasioned by the Death of the Hon. Richard Spencer, youngest Son of the Earl and Countess of Spencer. By Joseph Jekyll Rye, A. B. Vicar of Dallington, &c.* pp. 24. 4to. 2s. sewed, Deighton. London, 1791.

This is dedicated to Lady Spencer, as a tribute of respect to her unexampled resignation on the death of her son, and maintains (with some very just observations on the *reasonableness* of the doctrine) the flattering certainty of personal remembrance being among the joys of the other world. It perfectly answers the intention it was written to effect, that of consolation to surviving friends; and is certainly a natural and pleasing consideration of a subject interesting to every one who carries his reflections beyond the transient enjoyments of this life.

ART. 46. *A Sermon, preached in Lambeth Chapel, at the Consecration of the Right Reverend Spencer Madan, D. D. Lord Bishop of Bristol, on Trinity Sunday. By the Rev. Spencer Madan, A. M. and published by Command of the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury.* pp. 27. 12mo. 1s. sewed. Faulder. London, 1792.

The attention of the author is to awaken in his readers a due gratitude to God in having committed to us those oracles which he originally gave to his favoured but perverse nation the Jews. It is certainly a just and correct examination of his text; but when nothing more can be said of a sermon, it is only a proof of its negative goodness. Mr. Madan has delivered many better discourses on more common occasions,

- ART. 47. *Elements of Morality, for the Use of Children; with an introductory Address to Parents. Translated from the German of the Rev. C. G. Salzmann. Illustrated with Fifty Copper-plates.* pp. 550. 12mo. 3 vols. 10s. 6d. sewed. Johnson. London, 1791.

This translation, by Mrs. Wollstonecraft, may be said to be a continuation of Mr. Newberry's works. That gentleman wrote for children somewhat younger than the class for whom these volumes are intended. His books are therefore smaller, the subjects of them more infantile, and the plates executed in a coarser manner. It is no bad compliment to admit a comparison with the celebrated writer of *Goody Two Shoes*, *Polly Friendly*, &c.; and we may add, that the *Elements of Morality* being calculated for larger children, are, in all respects, as well adapted. The moral every where arises out of the story; and the plates, which would not discredit a superior performance, are always directed to that important end by a selection of incidents the most expressive of sentiment, virtue, and good manners.

- ART. 48. *A View of the external Evidence of the Christian Religion By the Rev. James L. Moore, Master of the Grammar-School in Hertfort, Hants.* pp. 132. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. London, 1792,

Mr. Moore has employed the little leisure his laborious occupation allows him, in compiling a compendious view of the external evidences in support of Christianity. Though but little novelty could be expected, our author has certainly a claim to merit in the judicious manner in which he has selected and arranged all that is necessary to elucidate this important subject.

- ART. 49. *Active Benevolence the Test of Vital Principle; a Charity Sermon, preached before the Corporation of Hertford, in the Parish Church of All Saints. By the Rev. Sir Adam Gordon, Bart. M. A. Printed for the Benefit of the Poor Children belonging to the said Parish.* pp. 34. 8vo. 1s. sewed. Stockdale. London, 1792.

The reverend baronet, with a warmth of philanthropy and language which reflects honour at once on his Christian piety and literary talents, enlarges on the merit and necessity of charity. We shall only select a specimen, that the reader may pursue his own judgment, and dismiss Sir Adam Gordon with a sincere promise that we shall always be happy to peruse such arguments on such an occasion:

‘What a gracious God we serve, who makes the price of our reward the best enjoyment of our lives—The luxury of doing good!—How would it scare the rich, the prosperous, the ambitious, and the mercenary worldling, if they weighed these subjects as they ought!—To reflect, that whatever their power or consequence in this life, of all these nothing will profit them in the world to come, if they have not been rich in good works, willing to communicate, ready to distribute. This surely should make us diligent to lay up a good store while in this probationary state; to remit a valuable portion of our substance

substance into *that* treasury where it will continue an unfading source of future consolation.

ART. 50. *Christian Politics; or, The Origin of Power and Subordination: a Sermon.* By William Agutter, M. A. pp. 16. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. London, 1792.

The origin and necessity of subordination are here treated in a correct and reasonable manner, and may be recommended to the perusal of those who support the present improper political systems, as a just and plain confutation of their dangerous opinions. On the whole, this sermon does credit to the pen of the reverend author.

For the *ENGLISH REVIEW*.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For JANUARY 1793.

MR. Hume remarks, that there is a point of elevation or depression in the affairs of nations, beyond which they seldom proceed. In tracing the progress of society, from the reformation to the present era, we have the amplest proofs of the justice of this observation. The human character seems to have attained the summit of excellence at the commencement of the present century; and, in fixing the moment of its superiority, we limit the extent of its powers, and ascertain the period of their decay. In our own country, at the time to which we have alluded, the tumults of republicanism, and the struggles of prerogative, were succeeded by the undisturbed possession of constitutional liberty; the rage of fanaticism, and the objections of infidelity, had shewn the expediency, and established the boundaries, of a regular system of national religion; the morals of the people were pure without affectation; and our literature was extensive and chaste, without being pedantic or frivolous. Commerce diffused a spirit of industry among all ranks of the community, and the mercantile aristocracy, which impolitic monopolies and successful speculations have now introduced, neither blunted the ardour of enterprise, nor diminished the prospect of independence. Though the ambition of France, the continual scourge of Europe, involved Great-Britain in occasional war, yet its horrors were mitigated by the exercise of mutual courtesy, the reciprocal consciousness of distinguished merit, and the periodical suspension of hostile acts. Though the vanity of the Bourbon race induced it to sacrifice the happiness of their subjects to visionary schemes of foreign conquest, yet

yet the effects of their conduct on the felicity of the world can no more be compared to the mischiefs likely to ensue from the victories of the Gallic republic, than the uneasiness which the children of Israel of old endured from the whips of Solomon, when contrasted with the torments with which they were threatened from the scorpions of Rehoboam. In examining the conduct of the British administration in their negotiation with the provisional executive council, it is scarcely necessary to justify, nor can it be material to condemn their perseverance in refusing to acknowledge M. Chauvelin as the accredited agent of the French commonwealth. Their grounds of complaint have been specifically stated; and, unless their objections are satisfactorily answered, impartiality must induce us to give our suffrage in their favour. The revolution in France, which originally aimed at subverting all existing political institutions, seem destined in their progress to overthrow every moral and religious sentiment which has hitherto directed the actions of mankind. Opinions, to which time had given respectability, and which experience had discovered to be useful, have been despised as ridiculous, or condemned as mischievous, by the self-created legislators of the universe in the National Convention. Every government, except the republic, has been doomed to destruction, as tyrannical; all philosophy, which sought aid from revelation, has been disregarded as absurd; equality has been represented as the only mode of procuring happiness in this world; and atheism has kindly lent her aid to secure the human race from the apprehension of future punishment. At the commencement of the present war, none who professed to be the friends of liberty could with success to the arms of Austria and Prussia. At that period, in the struggles of the French against the combined powers, we beheld the exertions of a gallant people contending for their own independence, and defending a constitution they had chosen for themselves. But when the first magistrate of the state was torn from his elevation by the hand of violence; the most valuable domains of the Imperial crown wrested from their possessor; and a nation, already too potent, threatening to extend the boundaries of its territories to the Alps and the Baltic; under the pretence of natural rights, dissolving treaties which were calculated for preserving the general tranquillity; and, in professing to meliorate the forms of society, shaking the pillars on which its superstructure is raised; we cannot be surprised if the admiration of neutral kingdoms is converted into resentment, and even the cause of despotism preferred to that of anarchy. The principles adopted by the councils of France, and propagated by their agents, are certainly inimical to the British constitution; and the idea which has been entertained of appealing from

from our rulers to those by whom they were delegated, is an insult upon the understanding, and an attempt to annihilate every social tie among us. No explanation of the obnoxious decree so justly complained of, can silence the doubts of our cabinet. That decree bestows upon France the right of giving a form of government to all the nations of the world, whenever she is pleased to think they want it. The sole arbiter of the general will of mankind, she holds forth the same boon to the Englishman, who rejoices in the protection of his sovereign, and the slave who trembles under the scymeter of a sultan. Profuse in her bounty, and indiscriminate in the selection of its objects, she is equally urgent in compelling the acceptance of her gifts.

THE BELGIC PROVINCES,

which she professed to liberate from the yoke of Austria, now groan under the pressure of military law and democratic tyranny. The faith which their forefathers venerated, and their descendants follow, is trampled under foot; the power of reviving the constitution, which the ancient princes of the Netherlands established, and under which their subjects were contented and prosperous, withheld from the people, who, after being deluded with the phantom of liberty, discover that the sceptre of Francis is only exchanged for the sword of Dumourier; the systematic servitude of a monarchy for the irregular licentiousness of a republic; and the disciplined hosts of Germany for the ungovernable rabble of the Convention.

The industrious merchants of FRANKFORT have been interrupted in their commerce, and injured in their property; insulted by a rapacious soldiery, and called upon to pay contributions for their attachment to the magistracy of their city. The barren DUCHY of SAVOY has been forced from the hands of its native ruler, and annexed to the empire of its gigantic neighbour. The virtuous and wealthy GENEVESE have been disturbed in their internal policy to gratify individual ambition; and Europe has been informed felicity cannot be found, except in the departments of the French republic, whose representatives are overawed by the desperate mob of a corrupted metropolis.

In answer to these objections it has been said, that the decree in question is meant to be confined, in its application, to those countries solely in which there is a decided majority in favour of the new principles of government. But this argument can neither extenuate the guilt, nor conceal the ambition, of the republic. The internal policy of every state can only be regulated by the will of its inhabitants; and an active and industrious minority may produce insurrections, though they cannot effect revolutions,

revolutions, and sow the seeds of civil dissension, which may ripen by perseverance into open rebellion. If the Convention was weak enough to mistake the congratulations of the subjects of Great-Britain on the retreat of the Duke Brunswick for an approbation of their conduct, and a desire of imitating their example, we have no security that they possess moderation or prudence to induce them to abstain from carrying their schemes of innovation into effect. And if they are resolved to commence hostilities, because the present ministers of his Britannic Majesty, shocked at the excesses which they have tolerated or justified, conceived that the former despotism of their government, entrusted to the mild and now murdered monarch, modified by the refinement of modern manners, and rendered fascinating by that enthusiastic honour and dignity of sentiment, which has now left them for ever, was more likely to promote internal peace and universal harmony, than the tumultuous democracy which has been substituted in its place; their behaviour can only be deemed an infamous attempt to introduce discord among a flourishing and united people. In passing this decree France has declared war against the world; and, till it is repealed, like the seed of Ishmael, her hand must be against every man, and every man's hand against her. In order to remove every prejudice which may be entertained with respect to the

OPENING OF THE SCHELD,

it must be recollected, that the question on that subject is not agitated between the people of the Austrian Netherlands and the Dutch, but between the latter and the French commonwealth. Nature seems to have designed that the whole extent of territory from the boundaries of French Flanders to the most northern extremities of the United Provinces should have been joined together under one head; and, in consequence of this disposition, Antwerp, from its central situation, and the magnificent river on which it stands, would probably have become the commercial metropolis of a great and flourishing kingdom. Previous to the accession of Charles the Fifth to the Imperial throne, the whole seventeen provinces were under the dominion of the house of Burgundy; and, during that period of their history, their extensive trade and fertile soil made them the storehouse and granary of Europe. The tyranny of Philip the Second roused his subjects to revolt; the valour of the Spanish troops reduced part of them to submission; but the invincible obstinacy of the Dutch, and the hereditary wisdom and bravery of the Orange Family emancipated them for ever from a foreign yoke, and separated them from the adjoining states. Instead of slaves they became conquerors, and, after a contest of four-

score

score years, dictated to their former masters the terms of pacification. In consequence of their successes the Scheld was shut, and the right of navigating it was solemnly relinquished. And if a candid inquirer must wish to see it resumed, he may at the same time be convinced, that this object can only be attained by a reunion of the whole of the Low Countries, and not by the incorporation of Belgia and France. The effect of the latter would be the total destruction of the states of Holland, the entire subversion of the balance of power, and the engendering of a political monster, which, after devouring every thing, it would feed upon its own bowels. When these circumstances are considered, it must follow that general expediency, the great practical rule of direction to statesmen, requires the interference of administration to support the claims of our allies according to the stipulations of the treaty of Munster.

WAR.

The skill and frugality of ministers have secured to them a temporary fund for carrying on a war. The spirit and the resources of the nation give them every reason to hope the continuance of support. The continental powers with which we are connected, and the important objects for which we contend, will give animation and energy to every exertion. It is the cause of human nature we are engaged to support; of a constitution which our ancestors cemented with their blood, which is the source of our pride, and the foundation of our happiness against a system of innovation which has swept before it, like an overwhelming torrent, the sacred institutions of antiquity, the pure consolations of religion, the duties of domestic life, and the obligations between man and man. In ancient times war was conducted with dignified ferocity; among the moderns it has been carried on with scientific skill: the recent hostilities of the French have been ferocious without dignity, and scientific without humanity; and if we meet their forces with such accumulated horrors, we have still the comfort of reflecting, that to abstain from war is impossible, and to doubt of success would be impious.

Such are the reasons which may be urged to induce us to justify administration if they should resolve to adopt this measure. On the other hand, it may be urged,

AGAINST WAR,

that the situation of Great-Britain secures her from any sudden attack, and her superior strength bids defiance to every open and concealed enemy. The provisions of the alien bill, according
to

to the concessions of administration, completely protect them from the machinations of emissaries from abroad, and the spontaneous declarations of the people must have removed their dread of internal commotion. The reformation which is required by some of our fellow-citizens is totally unconnected with the principles or progress of the French revolution; the necessity of it was demonstrated previous to that event, and the propriety of adopting it cannot be disproved by arguments deduced from the folly or wickedness of our neighbours. The men who have been the most zealous advocates in its support are distinguished for their love to the British constitution: if what they demand can be proved to be inconsistent with its original structure, they are open to conviction, and will with pleasure relinquish their plans. Till this proof is adduced, they must be permitted to think, that an attempt to restore our government to its inherent purity, can scarcely be tortured into a design of overthrowing it; and the most hardy scepticism, if it will condescend to examine their connexions and opinions, must be forced to acknowledge the integrity of their characters, and the justice of their requisitions. Professing themselves, equally with their opponents, the friends of rational freedom, they flatter themselves that, by complying with their wishes, an asylum will be provided for her in this island when the depravity which pervades the continent shall have driven her from every other corner of Europe. Feeling a laudable partiality for their native land, they would hope she might still retain that liberty by which she is so peculiarly endeared to them, and, instead of contemplating her meridian splendour in the wilds of America alone, feel her genial warmth invigorating every British bosom. The enormities of the French may excite a temporary horror, but pity or contempt is the only permanent emotion they can produce. Without any extraordinary interposition for their overthrow, their violence must operate their own destruction. Had the combined powers refrained from commencing the present war, the object they had in view would have been effectually promoted; but the dread of foreign invasion quieted every internal dispute, and united every class in repelling the common adversary. The principles on which the expediency of this measure are founded, would lead to the conclusion, that it aims at extirpating the inhabitants of France from the face of the earth; but such a design is unjustifiable in the conception, and impossible in the execution. Whatever may be the infernal crimes of certain individuals among them, we ought not to condemn a nation in the aggregate; and though the guilt of an *EGALITE'*, *ROBESPIERRE*, or *MARAT*, must excite the most lively indignation,

nation, can we forget the virtues, or overlook the merits, of a ROLAND or a RABAUD? In the present circumstances of the Low Countries, the opening of the Scheld is a matter of inferior moment; for since Ostend has been declared a free port, the Austrian Netherlands have enjoyed every advantage they formerly derived from the trade of Antwerp; and the States of Holland have endured every inconvenience they must expect to encounter from the renovated splendour of the last-mentioned city. The annexation of the Belgic provinces to France might certainly tend to subvert the balance of power; but surely they can have no dread of that event, who describe in such glowing colours the enormous excesses committed by the armies of the latter in these devoted provinces. However much we may sympathise with the calamities they suffer, yet prudence must point out the absurdity of exposing ourselves to similar misfortunes for the sake of affording them relief. If the arms of the Emperor and the King of Prussia were insufficient to protect them from the irruption of Dumourier, the inferiority of our military force, and our insular situation, must prevent our accomplishing the task. The ruined marine of the French republic is certainly unable to cope with the united fleets of Great-Britain and Holland; but while they are riding uncontroled sovereigns of the ocean, the walls of Amsterdam may be surrounded by the countless myriads which our enemies can bring into the field. Our admirals will have nothing to contend with but the vapouring galconades of a Kerfaint or a Monge; for the petty cruisers which the latter of these men proposes to fit out, will elude the most diligent search. The prosperous state of our revenue is the effect of a long peace; but should that tranquillity be interrupted, our boasted savings will be soon expended, and additional taxes become necessary; and the increase of their number will hardly be deemed the mode of securing to government the affections of the people, or perpetuating their veneration for the fabric of the constitution. To attempt to destroy immoral or irreligious sentiments by the sword, is rather a dangerous experiment, and by some may be considered as an imitation of the behaviour we so loudly condemn, and a precedent borrowed from that power whose conduct is the object of such universal abhorrence.

EXECUTION OF LOUIS XVI.

But an event has happened, in the course of the month, which will probably preclude all reasoning upon the subject, and which, in every benevolent mind, must suspend for a time the power of calmly examining their weight. LOUIS THE XVTH, after a trial

trial which violated every form of criminal justice, has been found guilty, and executed. In this complicated act of villainy we know not whether most to condemn the deliberate wickedness of the convention, or to admire the fortitude of the unhappy sufferer. During the whole course of this proceeding, no sensation of pity entered the breast of any individual of that body; and after having, in contempt of every divine and human law, discharged the inconsistent offices of accusers and judges, having been convicted of the most scandalous forgeries in attempting to bring their king to the block, and exposing him, without remorse, to insults from the vilest of mankind; their career of iniquity has been finished by dooming to death a man protected from injury by his own innocence, and the inviolability annexed to his character by their own constitution, under which he acted. If we are tempted to arraign the justice of Providence in exposing this prince to such severe misfortunes, we must adore its wisdom in giving him an opportunity of displaying virtues which will command the favour of posterity, and afford to the serious mind the pleasing reflection that his misery terminated with his earthly existence.

Adversity seems to have transformed the lazy sensualist into the intrepid sage, and the wretched votary of superstition into the humble, resigned, and pious disciple of Christianity. From the period of Louis's imprisonment to the moment of his decease, he has displayed a vigour of intellect, and a sensibility of temper which the elevation of his former station prevented him from exercising, or checked in their operation. The will he has left will remain a permanent memorial of his domestic virtues; and in his public capacity he was the instrument of preparing a constitution for his country which the wickedness of his subjects prevented them from improving, and the last remnant of which they destroyed by the decree which warranted his execution.

Communications for THE ENGLISH REVIEW are requested to be sent to MR. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-Street, London; where Subscribers for this Monthly Performance are respectfully desired to give in their Names.

T H E

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY 1793.

ART. I. *A Review of the Constitutions of the principal States of Europe, and of the United States of America. Given originally as Lectures. By M. de la Croix, Professor of Law at the Lyceum, and Author of Le Repertoire de Jurisprudence; La Nouvelle Encyclopedie, &c. Now first translated from the French, with Notes, by the Translator of the Abbé Raynal's Lettér to the National Assembly of France, &c. pp. 1052. 8vo. 2 vols. boards. 12s. Robinsons, London, 1792.*

THE author of the present work sets out with delineating the doctrine of Aristotle respecting the different forms of government. The penetration of that great philosopher enabled him to discover, in every political constitution, the principles on which they depended; and thence to draw the most accurate conclusions, both with regard to their efficiency and duration. He has accordingly displayed, in the clearest light, the advantages and inconveniences of each of the three forms of government; the monarchical, the aristocratical, and the democratical; but it was left to future ages, and to a nation remote from the scenes of primeval dominion, to combine those different forms into one harmonious assemblage, and erect a constitution which should prove the envy and admiration of the world; a constitution enjoying all the advantages, without the defects of the other forms, and affording to every individual the highest degree of liberty consistent with the good of the whole. It is almost superfluous to add, that the happy constitution alluded to is that of Great-Britain.

The author, after treating of the Athenian and Roman governments, which have long exercised the observation of political writers, proceeds to describe the Germanic constitution, the most complicated in its organisation of any with which

history presents us. On this part of his subject he makes the following observations :

‘ The most striking faults in the German system is, that, for a long time past, the chief of the empire has had too little power, as emperor ; and too much, as sovereign of those states which he presides over, as his hereditary dominions. All the princes of the empire are, in their own territories, absolutely independent of him ; and the diet is become a heavy, inactive body, the *log*, whose stupidity is braved by the states. If the emperor was armed with a more restrictive power, with a power truly executive, he could stop the vexatious tyrannies of these petty despots, who are guilty of a thousand acts of injustice in their states ; who alter the money ; enfranchise the nobles at their pleasure ; sell their subjects ; assess upon them arbitrary taxes ; and give a criminal indulgence to the members of their own college, because they stand in need of the same lenity themselves.

‘ It might not perhaps be paradoxical to assert, that the German constitution, such as it now is, bears a strong resemblance, nay, is indeed very near the same which existed in France, under the second and the beginning of the third race of its kings. Were not the dukes of Burgundy and counts of Champagne sovereigns in their respective states, while the kings were reduced to their own domains ? It was the policy of the French monarchs which made the difference ; they increased their sovereignty at the expence of that of their vassals ; while, in Germany, the vassals extended theirs by incroachments on that of their emperor. The French throne is no longer elective ; the Imperial throne is become so. In France the great officers of the crown had formerly principalities and provinces ; they now have salaries. In Germany the great officers had salaries ; but they now have states and kingdoms. Before the election of the emperor is sanctioned, the states prescribe laws to them ; in France the king has never hitherto received laws from any of his subjects, but has made laws for all. In Germany the empire and the emperor are two very distinct things ; in France the monarch and the monarchy are but one. People never said, the king and France ; but they always say, the emperor and the empire.

‘ Notwithstanding all these vices in the German constitution, there is reason to believe that it will still support itself for a long course of years.

‘ A return to liberty is not easily brought about in a country divided into many sovereignties ; because there is no agreement between the projects formed by its inhabitants. If the subjects of one prince are discontented, and resolve to break their chain, the subjects of another prince, who are unacquainted with their sentiments, cannot second their resolution. From hence it results, that the vassals of the same empire cannot depend on reciprocal aid from each other ; while the princes are assured of assistance from all their equals : there is consequently reason to believe that the domination of these princes may yet continue for ages ; while all idea of enfranchising their subjects is very distant, if not wholly chimerical.’

Poland,

Poland, the author remarks, has hitherto been exposed to danger from three causes, viz. the neighbourhood of Russia, that of the Turks, and the defects of its own constitution; while, on the other hand, it possessed two means of defence, in the bravery of the Cossacks, and the superiority of its cavalry. He examines, at great length, the sentiments of John James Rousseau and the Abbé Mably on the constitution of Poland: but it is a country which enjoys its independence upon so precarious a tenure, and has of late years suffered so great dilapidations, that it has now become of little importance in Europe.

M. de la Croix next examines the constitution of Sweden, which he divides into three periods. The first commences with the revolution which placed Gustavus Vasa on the throne. The second extends from the reign of that illustrious sovereign to the death of Charles the Twelfth; and the third includes the period from the decease of that prince to the completion of the last revolution in 1772, which produced the present constitution. Of the late King of Sweden M. de la Croix observes,

‘ If he has caused the diet to lose a great portion of the power which it had acquired under the two preceding reigns, he has delivered his subjects from an aristocracy which knew not how to employ its authority for increasing the revenue of the kingdom; for discharging its debts; for disengaging it from the yoke of foreign powers; or for animating commerce, and drawing from the ocean, which the Swedes ought to cultivate, and which offers to them an abundance of fish, a produce which is refused by an ungenial soil.’

Denmark had formerly states composed of three orders; the authority of the king was limited by the oath which he took at his coronation; and the crown was elective. But the nobles so much abused the jurisdiction which they had over their vassals, and the clergy found themselves so oppressed by an order who arrogated, to themselves alone, the rights which belonged equally to the two other orders, that in the year 1660 the nation abdicated the sovereignty in favour of Frederick the Third; set him free from the restraint of his oath; and declared the crown hereditary to his descendants, male or female.

Prussia was for a considerable time only a fief of Poland. It had formerly been under the dominion of the Teutonic order, the grand-master of which became its sovereign, with the title of hereditary duke; and it was afterwards united to the electorate of Brandenburg. In 1657, Prussia was rescued from the feudal bonds of Poland; and its territories were extended under Frederick William, surnamed the Grand Elector, whose son assumed the title of king; and, after causing himself to be crowned, he placed the crown, with his own hand, on the head

of his spouse, at Konisberg, in 1701. The grandson of this prince, aided by the treasure which his father had amassed, and the excellent troops which he enlisted in every part of Europe, established in his state that military force which afterwards rendered him the most powerful monarch of the North.

With respect to Russia, the author observes, it is not yet time to pronounce on the government of that country; but he thinks that the present empress has done more by her equity and beneficence, than all her generals have done by their warlike virtues.

‘It is of little advantage to so vast an empire,’ says he, ‘to have its bounds extended; its true welfare is more essentially promoted by favouring population by wise laws; by encouraging industry; by increasing its riches by commerce; by cultivating the arts, and reconciling them to a stubborn soil, ungenial to their nature; by meliorating the manners of a still savage race of nobles; and by communicating sensibility to a people whom the roughness of their climate had rendered impenetrable to all the soft affections and social virtues of humanity. These are the works which already make the reign of Catherine illustrious; and which will reflect so much glory on her memory.’

From surveying the seats of royalty in the North, the author proceeds to the republic of Venice, where he begins, as usual, with examining the origin of its government, and traces thence the gradations by which it has arrived at the form of its present constitution. The supreme authority of this republic rests in the nobles, who are in number about thirteen hundred. Though these are all of the grand council, and their titles are the same, there is a difference in the rank of their families. The most distinguished class comprehends those old Venetians whose ancestors assisted in electing the first doge. The second dates its origin from the epocha when Doge Granedico decreed that the grand council should be always composed of the same families. The third consists of those citizens who, in a moment when the republic had a very pressing occasion for money, purchased the rank of nobles for a hundred thousand Venetian ducats. Besides those nobles who form the sovereign body, there are noble subjects with the titles of count and marquis; but these, though of ancient families, enjoy not near the same degree of consideration as the three higher classes. The author describes the power of the senate and college, with the functions of the procurators of St. Mark, the council of ten, and the inquisitors of state.

The governments next mentioned are the republics of Genoa, Lucca, St. Marino, Ragusa, and Holland. The republic of Ragusa,

Ragusa, the author observes, presents the extraordinary spectacle of liberty supported by despotism.

The constitution of England has been already so well described by M. de Lolme, that the observations of M. de la Croix are in a great measure anticipated. This want of novelty, however, we wish he had compensated by accuracy; but he is erroneous in many particulars, those especially of the historical kind; and while he attempts to delineate the constitution of England, he seems to look with a partial eye towards the infant government of his own country. In regard to the errors above hinted at, it is proper to observe, that they are generally corrected, in notes, by the translator, who seems to have been no less attentive in examining the author's assertions on this subject, than faithful in delineating his sentiments.

The last constitution described is that of the United States of America, to which the author, as a republican in principle, appears to be warmly attached.

The remaining part of the work consists of a patriotic catechism for the use of the French; and an appendix, containing the declaration of rights, and other articles relative to the States of America.

On the whole, M. de la Croix appears to have drawn his materials, in general, from authentic sources of information; and as, besides an account of the political constitution of the different countries, he recites various particulars respecting the present situation of most of them, the work, notwithstanding its defects, may not prove unacceptable to the public.

ART. II. *Elegant Extracts of Natural History; collected and revised from a great Variety of the most elegant and authentic Writers in this Science; and arranged under the following Heads: General Phenomena of the Earth and Heavens; History of the Human Species, Quadrupeds, Birds, Fishes, Insects and Reptiles, Vegetables and Fossils. With a Preface, containing some Hints on Education. By Robert Heron. pp. 1014. 8vo. 2 vols. 10s. boards. Balfour, Edinburgh; Robinsons, London. 1792.*

THE present age is distinguished from all the preceding by an indolent and superficial curiosity. Reading has become more general; but the publications in highest request are those which contain variety of flimsy matter. The bulk of readers consult merely their amusement, and seem incapable of bestowing that steady attention which is necessary for the acquisition of real knowledge. Hence the multiplicity of periodical works, of *Beauties and Extracts*, which, it may be presumed, are often

more beneficial to the booksellers than to the public. That line of reading nourishes vanity, and has a tendency to enfeeble the mind.

The work now under consideration is liable to these objections; but should it excite a desire for natural knowledge, it may be useful in preparing for the perusal of systematic treatises. An abridged view of natural history, divested as much as possible of technical terms, and clothed in a becoming dress; would prove a most acceptable present to our youth of both sexes. It would open their minds, ripen their judgment, and strengthen their memory; and it would furnish an exhaustless fund of entertainment and instruction from the animated scenes with which they are surrounded.

The editor's preface has the air of hasty and careless composition. He adopts many of the sentiments of Rousseau, and strongly recommends that children shall be exercised in describing external objects. The choice which he has made of materials is, on the whole, judicious. We wish, however, that he had borrowed less from the *Speftacle de la Nature*, a work almost out of date. We must particularly object to the article on Bees, that on Fishes, and that on Fossils. These extracts betray an ignorance of optics and chemistry, and advance opinions which have long been exploded.

ART. III. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, Vol. LXXXI. For the Year 1791. Part II.* pp. 290. 4to. 8s. 6d. sewed. Elmsley. London, 1792.

[*Concluded.*]

Art. VIII. **O**N the Rate of Travelling, as performed by Camels; and its Application, as a Scale, to the Purposes of Geography. By James Rennel, Esq. F. R. S.—This excellent geographer begins his paper by paying a handsome compliment to the 'Association for promoting Discoveries in the interior Parts of Africa.' Under the patronage of that generous and humane society, he trusts that this vast region will at length be explored, and the latitude and longitude of the remarkable places ascertained by astronomical observations. In the mean time, he recommends it to travellers to take the bearings with pocket-compass, and to note the time elapsed between each station; for the 'rate of a camel's movement,' he remarks, 'is, beyond all others, the least variable.' To establish this interesting point, he has, with his usual accuracy, examined and compared three different journals: that of Mr. Carmichael, who traversed

traversed the Great Desert in the year 1751; one kept by Colonel Capper in 1778; and the third by Mr. Hunter in 1767. The first gentleman travelled from Aleppo to Rackama in 204 hours and 20 minutes; the second in 205 hours and 44 minutes; and the third in 197 hours and 30 minutes. Their rates of travelling were therefore as follows: Mr. Carmichael's 2,475 British miles an hour; Colonel Capper's 2,51; and Mr. Hunter's 2,585: so that the average may be stated at $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. Light caravans travel about nine hours each day, and heavy caravans $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours. They halt generally one day in twelve. A light camel travels at least one fifth faster than one carrying a load of five or six hundred pounds. Mr. Rennel's computations are illustrated by a sketch of the routes across the deserts from Aleppo to Busforah.

Art. IX. On Infinite Series. By Edward Waring, M. D. F. R. S. Lucasian Professor of Mathematics in the University of Cambridge.—The forbidding aspect of this paper prevents us from entering into any minute examination of it. Dr. Waring gives a concise history of the discoveries in infinite serieses, makes some miscellaneous remarks of small importance, and refers perpetually to his *Meditationes Analyticae*.

Art. X. An Account of some Appearances attending the Conversion of cast into malleable Iron. In a Letter from Thomas Beddoes, M. D. to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—Dr. Beddoes adopts the opinion of the French chemists, that cast iron contains a mixture of the oxyd or calx of that metal, together with plumbago, or the compound of charcoal and iron. But though he leans strongly to the chemical theory of M. Lavoisier, he differs from that ingenious philosopher with regard to the constitution of charcoal. Instead of admitting this to be a simple substance, he asserts that it consists of hydrogene and azote, or of the bases of the inflammable and phlogisticated gases. Whether this deviation from the system of M. Lavoisier be judicious, we shall not venture to decide; but we entirely agree with Dr. Beddoes that the exploded doctrine of phlogiston is unable to explain the phenomena which he describes.

As the reverberatory has lately been substituted for the finery furnace, in the iron manufactories, the process of converting cast into malleable iron admits of infinite variations. Dr. Beddoes had an opportunity of observing the appearances which the metal puts on during that change. In somewhat more than half an hour the charge was nearly melted, and the workman began to stir the liquid mass. It soon heaved, and emitted a blue lambent flame. This was called fermentation. In half an hour the blue flame broke out over the whole mass, which seemed to grow hotter, and the motion was general. In an hour the

constant stirring had reduced the metal to the appearance of fine sand, and the flame had grown more dilute. The mass was now heated, and a hissing noise heard. About two hours from the commencement of the operation, the finery cruder boiled up. The metal was now gathered into lumps, and brought to the hottest part of the furnace, where it was fused in six or eight minutes.

‘The heaving or swelling motion,’ says Dr. Beddoes, ‘so conspicuous in the process, is doubtless owing to the discharge of an elastic fluid; and the lambent deep blue flame, breaking out in spots over the whole surface, shews that this elastic fluid is an inflammable gas of the heavy kind.’ He explains, from his own principles, the production of this heavy inflammable air, in the following manner: ‘The oxygene of the imperfectly reduced metal combines with the charcoal to form fixed air; at the same time another portion of the charcoal is thrown into an elastic state; that is, into inflammable air, and burns on the surface with a very deep blue flame, on account of the admixture of fixed air.’ To that combination of the oxygene with the charcoal, Dr. Beddoes attributes the heat which is manifestly generated at the beginning of the fermentation.

Art. XI. On the Decomposition of Fixed Air. By Smithson Tennant, Esq. F. R. S.—The celebrated M. Lavoisier discovered that fixed air is a compound of charcoal and oxygenous gas; and Mr. Tennant has analysed it into the same ingredients. He introduces into a glass tube a little phosphorus, with some powdered marble, slightly calcined. The tube is coated with sand and clay, to prevent the sudden action of heat; the one end is completely, the other partly, closed, in order that the expanded air may escape. It is kept some minutes at a red heat, and then suffered to cool. Upon breaking it, a black powder is found, consisting of charcoal and a compound of lime and phosphoric acid. In this experiment the oxygene, contained in the carbonic gas of the marble, deposits its charcoal, and unites with the phosphorus; and the acid thus formed combines with the lime by a double affinity.

Art. XII. A Meteorological Journal, principally relating to Atmospheric Electricity; kept at Knightbridge, from the 9th of May, 1789, to the 8th of May, 1790. By Mr. John Read. Communicated by R. H. A. Bennet, Esq. F. R. S.—This journal was kept with assiduous attention, and the instrument for measuring the atmospheric electricity seems to have been well contrived. This electricity was 241 times positive; and 156 times negative. Sparks were taken 98 days; and there were only seven days in which no signs of electricity were perceived.

Art. .

Art. XIII. Farther Experiments relating to the Decomposition of dephlogisticated and inflammable Air. By Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F. R. S.—This is one of the most confused and incoherent of all Dr. Priestley's numerous productions. The main experiment is buried amidst a chaos of digressions, conjectures, and hypotheses. Nor can we discover any thing new; for the principal facts were remarked near three years before, by the French academicians. The Doctor procured his oxygenous gas from the yellow product of the solution of nitrous acid, and his hydrogenous gas from iron, by the decomposition of steam. It is evident, that neither of these gases could have been pure, but must have contained a large admixture of azote. The experiment was made on a very narrow scale, by exploding the two gases in a copper vessel, somewhat larger than a quart bottle.—In all cases, the whole of the hydrogenous gas is consumed, together with the proportion of the oxygenous necessary to the inflammation. When therefore the hydrogenous gas is deficient, it will unite with part of the oxygenous gas to form water; at the same time, the other part of the oxygenous gas will combine with the azote contained in the mixture, and yield a small portion of nitrous acid. On the other hand, when there is a surplus of hydrogenous gas, the product will be pure water, with a residuum of hydrogenous and azotic gases. It is no objection that M. Lavoisier obtained no acid from the slow combustion of the two gases; since the azotic and oxygenous gases will not combine without the assistance of intense heat. But the composition of water has been indisputably established by the late decisive experiment, performed with the utmost care and assiduity, and on a very large scale, by a deputation of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

Art. XIV. Experiments on Human Calculi. In a Letter from Timothy Lane, F. R. S. to William Pitcairn, M. D. F. R. S.—Fourteen specimens were examined, from which it appears that the human calculi vary much in their properties and constitution, some being soluble in an alkaline lixivium, and others not.

Art. XV. Chermes Lacca. By William Roxburgh, M. D. of Samulcotta. Communicated by Patrick Russell, M. D. F. R. S.—It is well known that lac is a cluster of the *nidi* of a certain minute insect. But Dr. Roxburgh here describes the male and female, and remarks some curious circumstances relating to their economy. The *male*, in its perfect state, is about the size of a small fly; it has six legs and four membranaceous wings; its *antennæ* are clavated and feathered;—it runs and jumps with great activity. The *female*, in its *larva* state, is red and exceedingly minute; its *antennæ* filiform and hairy;

hairy; its tail consists of two slender white hairs. The *larva* issue from their cells about the end of December, and fix themselves on the hard small branches of their parent tree, the *mimosa*. They are soon invested with a brittle, garnet-coloured crust. About the end of March they have acquired three or four times their original size, a small cover opens, and they emerge in their perfect state. The female fly is rather smaller than the male, and of a finer red. It has two wings and six legs; but is not so active. The females, as in the bees, seem vastly to out-number the males. The cells are about an eighth of an inch in diameter, and a quarter of an inch deep; they are entirely unconnected. Each contains near an hundred *animalcula*. A good engraving accompanies this paper.

Art. XVI. The Longitude of Dunkirk and Paris from Greenwich, deduced from the Triangular Measurement in 1787, 1788, supposing the Earth to be an Ellipsoid. By Mr. Isaac Dalby. Communicated by Charles Blagden, M. D. Sec. R. S. This paper contains some ingenious, though confused, mathematical investigation. On the hypothesis that a meridian on the earth is an ellipse, Mr. Dalby determines the longitude of Dunkirk to be $2^{\circ} 22' 6''.8$, and that of Paris $2^{\circ} 20' 4''.9$. It deserves to be mentioned, as a proof of the astonishing accuracy of modern observation, that these quantities differ not half a second from those assigned by Dr. Maskelyne in 1787.

Art. XVII. On the Method of determining, from the real Probabilities of Life, the Values of contingent Reversions in which three Lives are involved in the Survivorship. By Mr. William Morgan, F. R. S.—Mr. Morgan now concludes his intricate and elaborate calculations on this useful branch of political arithmetic; in which he has removed some difficulties, and detected several mistakes, into which his predecessors had fallen. We hope he will proceed to collect the proper *data* by which his solutions may be reduced to practice.

Art. XVIII. Abstract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lyndon in Rutland. By Thomas Barker, Esq. with the Rain in Surrey and Hampshire, for the Year 1790. Communicated by Thomas White, Esq. F. R. S.—The greatest heat was 80° , the greatest cold $26^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$. The quantity of rain which fell at Lyndon in Surrey was $21\frac{1}{2}$ inches, that at Selbourn in Hampshire $32\frac{1}{2}$. A few remarks are subjoined, as usual, on the state of the weather and the circumstances of rural economy.

Art. XIX. Description of a simple Micrometer for measuring small Angles with the Telescope. By Mr. Tiberius Cavallo, F. R. S.—This contrivance is abundantly easy and cheap, and may be of use in cases where no great accuracy is required.

Mr. Cavallo proposes that a thin and narrow slip of mother of pearl, finely divided, be fixed upon the diaphragm at the focus of the eye-glass. To ascertain the value of these divisions, he directs that a ruler, having two dots six inches asunder, be removed to the distance of 57 feet $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches from the object glass of the telescope; the number of parts intercepted on the micrometer will then correspond to an angle of half a degree. The author justly observes, that this instrument may be of considerable service in the army and navy, by affording some estimate of distances. Thus if the angle which a man subtends be discovered, it will be easy to compute his distance with tolerable accuracy. And hence also may be determined the magnitude of other objects in the same place. To facilitate these calculations, Mr. Cavallo adds two tables; the first gives the angles subtended by an extension of one foot at different distances; the second gives those for an extension of six feet.

Art. XX. A new Method of investigating the Sums of Infinite Series. By the Rev. Samuel Vince, A. M. F. R. S.—This paper is the offspring of plodding industry. The author reduces a great variety of serieses into others, in which the reciprocals of the powers of the natural numbers are concerned. He has therefore computed four tables to twelve places of deci-

mals: the first exhibits the sum of the terms $\frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{3^n} + \frac{1}{4^n}$,

&c. *ad infinitum*; the second, those of $\frac{1}{2^n} - \frac{1}{3^n} + \frac{1}{4^n} - \frac{1}{5^n}$, &c.

the third, those of $\frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{4^n} + \frac{1}{6^n}$, &c. and the fourth, those of

$\frac{1}{3^n} + \frac{1}{5^n} + \frac{1}{7^n}$, &c. n being each natural number inclusive,

from 2 to 40. These tables must have been formed by actual division, and addition or subtraction. What incredible labour!

Art. XXI. Experiments and observations to investigate the Composition of James's Powder. By George Pearson, M. D. F. R. S. Communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—The minute detail of the common routine of chemical trials is, of all compositions, the most intolerable. A man of genius would content himself with selecting those experiments which afford curious or important results. Dr. Pearson has spent much time in submitting James's powder to the various tests; but this was no reason that he should tire his readers with the history of his operations in the laboratory.—It appears from the conclusion, in p. 50, that this celebrated powder consists of phosphoric acid, lime and antimonial calx, which differs, however,

in its chemical properties from the other calces of antimony, and that bone-ashes, mixed in a certain proportion with antimony, and exposed to white heat, would form that powder.

Art. XXII. An Account of some Chemical Experiments on Tabasheer. By James Louis Macie, Esq. F. R. S.—We shall not enter into the tedious enumeration of the processes which the tabasheer underwent. Suffice it to say, that this singular vegetable concretion is of a siliceous nature, and not calcareous, as might have been expected. Mr. Macie mentions a curious occurrence: ‘A green bamboo, cut in the hot-house of Dr. Pitcairn at Islington, was judged to contain tabasheer in one of its joints, from a rattling noise discoverable on shaking it; but being split by Sir Joseph Banks, it was found to contain not ordinary tabasheer, but a solid pebble, about the size of half a pea.’ We violently suspect that this pebble was not produced by the bamboo. It is well known that stones which happen to lodge in the clefts of trees are sometimes inclosed by the progress of the growth, and are afterwards found in the heart of the wood. Nay, we are not altogether without our suspicions that common tabasheer, in some cases at least, is owing to a similar cause.

Art. XXIII. A second Paper on Hygrometry. By J. A. de Luc, Esq. F. R. S. Part II.—It is with extreme reluctance that we can ever prevail with ourselves to peruse the dull speculations of this diffuse writer. The second part of the paper contains little else than the controversy of M. de Luc with his countryman and rival M. de Saussure, on the important subject of the *hair* hygrometer invented by the latter. It seems that this instrument, though at bottom founded on the same principles, differs widely in its indications from the *whalebone* hygrometer; as might indeed have been expected. Each of these *philosophers* maintains the accuracy of his own contrivance, and charges his antagonist with mistakes and oversights. In this instance, M. de Luc’s arguments, though abundantly weak, deserve somewhat the preference. But our readers, we trust, will excuse us from entering into the particulars of this very notable dispute. We must not, however, omit that M. de Luc has presented his *whalebone slip hygrometer* to the Royal Society.

The volume concludes with the list of donations from November 1790 to June 1791.

ART. IV. *Painting; a Poem, in Four Cantos. With Biographical Notes.* pp. 74. 8vo. 2s. Dangerfield. London, 1792.

A Species of poetic composition has lately been successfully cultivated, which, though it has few claims to original and inventive GENIUS, has ample claims to correct and elegant TASTE. It offers no charms to the mere lover of verse; it is addressed to the polished critic, who, to enthusiasm for any particular art, is sufficiently conversant with the richness of versification to relish whatever relates to that art, when delivered in poetical numbers. The dryness of didactic verse is enlivened with an ornamented diction, and scientific precepts which are not new, appear with all the charm of novelty, by the aid of the brilliant decorations of fancy. Such are the classical essays of Mr. Hayley, on painting, on history, and on poetry.

The writer of the present poem has entered the lists with his master; but this not with the confidence of a rival, but with the modesty of a scholar. He informs us, in his preface, that 'the following lines were suggested by the perusal of Mr. Hayley's beautiful Essay on History; nor had I then seen his Essay on Painting, which has since fallen into my hands, and that so elegantly, so scientifically touched, as to make me diffident of entering the lists after him.'

We confess we have received considerable pleasure from this poem. The writer displays much scientific criticism, and a lively sensibility to poetical beauties; and he has illustrated his poem by a pleasing and copious commentary. He has collected, with taste and judgment, the most remarkable anecdotes which relate to the professors of the art he celebrates. The work is divided into four cantos; and, upon the whole, we cannot refrain from expressing our approbation of its execution. At the same time we are compelled to animadvert on one glaring fault, which we are the more surprised at in the composition of a writer who displays good taste. In almost every page our ear is hurt by an incorrectness of rhyme, of which we shall give some specimens: at p. 9, *Rome and crown*; p. 10, *throne and Rome*; p. 12, *frame and chain*; and at p. 13, *own and dome*; are all instances of what we mention. This defect hurts the harmony of the verse, and proceeds from some imperfection in the writer's ear, which we wonder those critical friends, whom he tells us he consulted, did not point out to his observation.

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The origin of painting the author deduces from the circumstance of the Corinthian maid tracing the shadow of her sleeping lover on the wall. The following passage equals the description which Mr. Hayley has given on the same subject:

' Or is to Greece thy filial homage paid?
Thyself the offspring of the Sicyon maid;
Of fair Corinthia, doom'd by Fate to prove
The bitter pangs of separating love.
At eve the lovers stole a last adieu,
And midnight pass'd, yet still the theme was new;
One glimmering lamp alone its light supplies,
Gilds their sad tears, and wavers with their sighs.
At length, with love, and care, and sleep oppress'd,
The youth reclines on fair Corinthia's breast;
The watchful maid the kindly lamp befriends,
And on the wall the sleeping shade suspends.
Love lent a feather from his bow, to trace
The graceful outline of the much-lov'd face.
From hence the Greeks their boasted honour prove,
And graft their glory on a maiden's love !'

We think that the little circumstance of ' the glimmering lamp gilding their sad tears, and wavering with their sighs,' is selected with great felicity. As a farther specimen of this ingenious production, we transcribe his character of Michael Angelo and Raphael, the Homer and Virgil of painting :

' Chief of the Roman school, descend and sing;
Loud, and yet louder, strike the brazen string,
Till the strong tones from heaven's high arch rebound,
And earth reverberates the bursting sound:
Strains all divine great Angelo * inspire,
Thy hand of iron, and thy soul of fire;
Whose nervous line with skill profound combin'd
Each playful muscle and its place assign'd;
From thee first Raphael † seiz'd the glowing flame,
Which o'er him swift like bursting lightnings came:

Raphael !

* Michael Angelo claims equally our attention as a sculptor and an architect: the love of the former he imbibed at an early age from his nurse, whose husband exercised the art; and of the latter, it is to be hoped, that the cupola of St. Peter's at Rome will bear everlasting testimony. He died 1564, aged 89.

† Raphael, who was ambitious of being considered by the latest posterity as unrivalled in his art, took infinite pains with his studies, and sent to ransack Greece for models of elegant forms of all descriptions,

Raphael! whose more than mortal pencil caught
The soft emotions of the lightsome thought;
Skill'd to arrest the passions as they roll,
And snatch expression, touchstone of the soul!
To bid with grace the bending neck decline,
To float loose drap'ries with the flowing line;
The wanton locks in waving braids to turn;
Instruct the raptur'd Magdalen to mourn;
Beauty with added lustre warm, and shed
The stream of glory round the sacred head;
Low at thy feet the dying victim * see,
That ruthless Envy immolates to thee!

If his work is honoured with a second edition, we advise him to correct the frequent deficiencies of his rhyme; to strengthen some feeble verses, and vary some trite similes. He seems not to want either taste or assiduity to render his poem a finished production.

ART. V. *A Review of Dr. Price's Writings on the Subject of the Finances of this Kingdom. To which are added, the Three Plans communicated by him to Mr. Pitt in the Year 1786, for redeeming the National Debt: and also an Inquiry into the real State of the Public Income and Expenditure, from the Establishment of the Consolidated Fund to the Year 1791. By William Morgan, F. R. S.* pp. 80. 8vo. 2s. Cadell. London, 1792.

THIS pamphlet was written during the last session of parliament, when a few trifling taxes were repealed. The abilities of Mr. Morgan, as a calculator, are well known in

scriptions, which having made his own, by frequently copying, he destroyed, to bar the same path to any future rival. From his friend Bramante he procured the key of the Pope's chapel, to see what Michael Angelo was there doing, which, like a flash of lightning, awakened every latent power; and from thence his style received its highest pitch of improvement. His picture of the Transfiguration, which is esteemed his master-piece, was painted for France, but, on his death, detained at Rome, and placed in the church of St. Pietro in Montorio. He was to have married the niece of Cardinal Bibiena, who revived the decoration of theatrical representation by scenery, in a play performed before Leo the Tenth; but his excessive debaucheries put a period to his existence at the early age of 37, in 1520.

* Francesco de Bologna, the friend of Raphael, died of envy at receiving the St. Cecilia of Raphael, consigned to his care for the church of Bologna.

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the republic of science; and the present work declares that becoming independence of mind which disdains to flatter and deceive. He exposes, with success, the hollow schemes with which our rulers amuse a credulous public; and rescues from oblivion the plans communicated by his late friend, Dr. Price, who was justly entitled to a very large share of the praise so unjustly arrogated by another. That amiable and enlightened philosopher laboured with assiduity to open the eyes of his countrymen to the dangers which threatened them from the immense accumulation of national debt; and, with much perspicuity, he pointed out the easiest and most effectual methods for reducing and extinguishing it. He was attacked by the hirelings of ministry; but their performances were soon forgotten, and Dr. Price lived to see his speculations, which had been treated as at least visionary, in some measure realised. In 1769 he published his 'Treatise on Annuities and Reversionary Payments;' in which he represented the folly of borrowing and mortgaging perpetually on the public credit, and shewed, that if the sinking fund, established by Sir Robert Walpole, and afterwards destroyed by that corrupt minister, had been faithfully applied, it would at that time have entirely extinguished the debt, amounting to 136 millions. In 1771, appeared his 'Appeal on the Subject of National Debt' which entered more fully into the subject, and earnestly called the attention of the public. The third edition of his first work came out in 1773, and contained some objections to a plan for paying the national debt, which Lord North had then announced in the House of Commons. But the war soon broke out with America, and the debts were increased by that minister above 120 millions. In 1777, Dr. Price published his 'Additional Observations on Civil Liberty;' wherein he particularly reprobated the ruinous expedient of increasing the capital in order to borrow money at a low interest. A fourth edition of the 'Treatise on Reversionary Payments' was published in 1783, which, among other valuable additions, contained an account of the debt incurred since the year 1776. After the removal of the Marquis of Lansdown, Dr. Price published a statement of the finances at the signing of the peace, in which he pointed out the measures which that nobleman intended to have adopted towards relieving the nation. One of these was, gradually to convert the three *per cent.* stock into four *per cents*; and thus to diminish the capital. In 1783, notwithstanding the imposition of new taxes, the expenditure exceeded the income nearly one million. When Mr. Pitt came to power, the loans were conducted on better principles. Almost the whole of the navy, victualling, and ordnance arrears were funded in stock bearing an interest of five *per cent.* In the year 1786

the former divisions of the taxes into four heads were abolished, and all included into one fund called the *Consolidated Fund*. Out of the surplus income a million is annually to be applied to the gradual discharge of the national debt. 'This is undoubtedly,' says Mr. Morgan, 'a very important measure, and entitles the minister to just praise.' But it will be readily seen, from the short review which I have given of Dr. Price's writings, to whom the nation is indebted for the first idea of this measure, and of the method in which it is carried into execution.' Had Mr. Pitt, therefore, derived his information only from those writings, his obligations to them would have been sufficiently manifest to have created a doubt, whether the hope which he expressed in the House of Commons of having 'his name inscribed on a pillar to public credit as its preserver and restorer,' ought not also to have included the name of Dr. Price.' But the minister's obligations were of a much stronger nature. In January 1786 he wrote a letter to Dr. Price, inclosing a plan for examination. Mr. Pitt there proposed that 107½ millions of *three per cents* should be converted into 74½ millions of *five per cents*, at the price of 69½. This would have occasioned an additional expence of 510,000*l. per annum*, and left only 490,000*l.* for the discharge of the *five per cent.* stock. But the annual million disposed in this way would not have extinguished 74½ millions of *five per cent.* stock in a shorter period than 107½ millions of *three per cents* at 90; so that the public must have suffered the same loss as if they had paid 20 *per cent.* on the principal more than the market price. Dr. Price urged his objections so strongly against the scheme, that Mr. Pitt was convinced of its impropriety, and desired a conference on the subject. On this occasion Dr. Price communicated three different plans for the reduction of the national debt. In the first the annual million was to be aided by the falling in of the temporary annuities, life annuities, expences of management, and converting 60 millions of the *three per cents* into *four per cents*, by providing, in the first five years, 600,000*l. per ann.* for paying the difference of interest. In this plan 15 millions of stock are discharged in seven years; and the *five per cent.* stock, then becoming redeemable at par, are entirely extinguished in fifteen years. The payment of the *four per cents* now commences, and is computed in the 32d year, from which time the *three per cents* continue to be redeemed at par. In this way 188½ millions of debt are discharged in 40 years.—The second plan is the same, except that it supposes no conversion of stock. In thirteen years above 20½ millions of the *three per cents*, and near 5 millions of the *four per cents*, are discharged. The *five per cents* then become redeemable, and are extinguished in the 20th year. In

two years more the remainder of the *four per cents* are redeemed; and from that time the *three per cents* are paid off at par. In the space of 40 years 171½ millions are discharged.—The third is the feeblest plan, as the operation of the annual million is not quickened by the addition of 600,000*l.* during the first five years. It discharges only 126 millions in 40 years.—Dr. Price strongly recommended the first plan; but Mr. Pitt would not venture on so rigorous a measure, though he has since made an addition of 800,000*l.* to the taxes. The third plan, therefore, was adopted, and with some restricting clauses that must greatly retard its operation. The appropriated million would grow to four millions in 26 years; but the act of parliament limits its increase to that sum, and thus changes compound interest into simple interest at the time when it would have redeemed more debt in the next 14 years than during the 26 preceding. It is besides enacted, that on any emergency, the produce of the sinking fund may be appropriated, provided that an equivalent tax be laid. This clause alone is sufficient to defeat the whole plan:

• When the different schemes were proposed in the year 1786 for redeeming the national debt, the revenue, in consequence of Mr. Pitt's regulations and improvements was represented to be in such a flourishing state as to have no doubt of its yielding a million surplus in that and the following years. But subsequent experience has shewn, that, even with the aid of extraordinary receipts to the amount of some millions, no such surplus has ever existed. The anticipation of the sinking fund, the gleanings of arrears in the different receivers' hands, the rigorous exaction of the taxes, the extension of the excise, the abominable expedient of annual lotteries, and all other efforts to increase the revenue, have proved insufficient; and it has been found necessary to have recourse to new loans to provide for the public expenditure. But the *apparent* reduction of the debt has been carried on, and the nation, without enquiring into the means, hath easily satisfied itself with the belief of its growing prosperity.'

Dr. Price was convinced of the inefficacy of the plan carried on; and this opinion he intended to support, by inserting, in the last edition of his *Treatise on Reversionary Payments*, an accurate statement of the public accounts since the establishment of the sinking fund. Unfortunately death interrupted the labours of that excellent man, and he left behind him only a few detached observations. He expresses his astonishment that the select committee in 1786 should state a surplus of a million not founded on any actual produce of the revenue, but on a supposition that the expenditure was two millions less than in fact. He shews very clearly, that, though the extraordinary receipts in the years 1787, 1788, and 1789, amounted to more than

three

three millions, yet above half a million more has been borrowed than has been spent in paying off. The conclusions of Dr. Price are confirmed by the report of the select committee in 1791, which Mr. Morgan proceeds to examine. It appears, from arranging the accounts in a more intelligible manner, that the debt contracted during the five preceding years, notwithstanding the extraordinary receipt of five millions, exceeded the debt redeemed by more than a million and a half:

‘ It was reasonable to have expected that, in a Report intended for the information of the public, the real surplus or deficiency of each year would have been separately stated, so that it might have been ascertained without difficulty, whether the revenue of the country had hitherto been equal to the expenditure. But, instead of proceeding in this plain and simple manner, a perplexed mass of estimates is thrown together, and the reader is led to imagine that, like the government of a kingdom, the public accounts are involved in so much mystery, as to admit of being understood only by ministers of state. Happily, however, for mankind, the dawn of general knowledge begins to appear, and it will soon be discovered, that one requires only a little *common-sense*, and the other a little *common arithmetic*.’

The intelligent author concludes with animadverting on a pamphlet lately published under the sanction of the Treasury, and entitled, ‘ A brief Examination into the Increase of the Revenue, Commerce, and Navigation, of Great-Britain.’

‘ The obvious design of this work is, to impress the public with an idea of their great obligations to the ministry for the wisdom of those measures which have conducted the nation to its present state of prosperity; and, in order to enhance this obligation, the year 1783 is selected for the contrast, when a war, which had nearly destroyed the resources and credit of the kingdom, had just been terminated. I believe there are few instances in which ministers of state have any claim to the gratitude of a country for promoting its trade or manufactures; but that, on the contrary, they often deserve its severest reprobation for checking their progress, and even ruining them altogether. If, therefore, the commerce of this kingdom has increased of late, it has been by the gradual operations of a peace of nine years, and the industrious spirit of the people, not by any encouragement it has received from the present administration. *Their* claims to gratitude are indeed peculiarly improper, and they ought to blush in assuming to themselves the least merit on this occasion. For, by the imposition of vexatious taxes, by the extension of the excise, and by three successive armaments, our commerce has been materially obstructed; and consequently the high degree of prosperity to which it is said to have now arrived, has been attained not only without the assistance of ministry, but even by surmounting the impediments which the operations of government have opposed to its progress.’

Though our ideas do not entirely correspond with Mr. Morgan's, we nevertheless think them of sufficient importance to lay before the public. We can hardly be of opinion, that the lynxeye of opposition would not detect and expose the minister were his schemes of economy ill-founded or illusory, as they are here represented. The subject, however, is of great importance; and the author of the work before us seems entitled to respect.

ART. VI. *A Poetical and Philosophical Essay on the French Revolution. Addressed to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke.* pp. 39. 4to. 2s. Ridgway. London, 1793.

THIS poem, written by Mr. Courtenay, the *facetious* member (as appears by the advertisement), consists of unqualified panegyric on the important revolution of France. In the character of a poet, Mr. Courtenay has before solicited the public attention; but we cannot felicitate him on his poetical powers. He sometimes displays a lively imagination, but he rarely expresses with perspicuity and with grace what appears often to be well conceived. He is generally encumbered with ideas while his lines drag heavily on the ear; in a word, he is little versed in the *art of poetry*. In this effusion of the democratic muse, he attacks the vulnerable parts of Mr. Burke's 'Reflections,' and appears to be deeply read in the writings of those philosophers who, while they subvert the foundations of religion and government, only erect in their stead a visionary and delusive fabric.

We select the following passage as one at least of the most animated of the poem:

From such a theme the muse indignant flies,
And sees majestic scenes in France arise,
Sees liberty in splendid triumph shine,
And Gallia's sons kneel at her sacred shrine,
Where the Bastille once spread its dreary gloom,
And daring spirits found a living tomb.
No slaves in arms now shield a despot's throne,
Man's sacred claims her generous soldiers own.
No charter'd grants the venturous prow restrain,
Nor on the artist cast a galling chain.
No parish bounds confine him to a spot,
To starve by law, unpitied and forgot.
No statesman there a venal suffrage buys,
And shackles freedom by a vile excise.

No inquisition marriage rites profanes,
 No *Toll* ~~As~~ there with pious rancour reigns.
 No bloated priests count godliness by gain,
 While starving curates supplicate in vain.
 As all religions with one voice agree
 To preach good morals, every sect is free.
 No subtle judges law's strong bulwark mine,
 And doom a prison by the insolvent's fine.
 There mild philosophy bids contest cease,
 And vile attorneys curse the word of peace.
 No nuptial bonds bid nuptial Bastiles rise,
 Love hovers round, releas'd from galling ties.
 ' Oppression's grasp the peasant feels no more,
 No longer doom'd to drag the slavish oar;
 A wretched exile from his natal place;
 Torn from his wife, his children's fond embrace,
 To mourn one fatal crime—a partridge slain,
 While night by night he watch'd his scanty grain:
 His scanty grain no more the Levite's spoil,
 The tithe-sheaf now rewards his honest toil.
 No mean exemption cringing nobles find,
 No partial taxes press the labouring hind.
 No courtier's pension robs his humble shed,
 And cheats a village of their hard-earn'd bread.
 No more he dreads the *Corvées*' servile day,
 Nor starves and sweats to form the royal *Way*.
 The feudal common blooms beneath his hand,
 And yeomen rise the wonder of the land.
 With conscious pride he tends his fertile fields,
 And tastes the gifts that bounteous nature yields.
 O'er the press'd grape with joyous visage sings,
 And crowns a with breath'd by the best of kings.
 ' No regal grants *there* mark despotic will,
 And make a physical by moral ill;
 Edge keen distress, and plant invidious strife,
 Between the luxuries and wants of life.
 From Winter's chill the poor with joy retire,
 Earth yields her fuel, lights the cottage fire;
 Rural content her cheerful front displays,
 And smiling infants play around the blaze.'

The writer has accompanied this work by an ingenious commentary, consisting of curious extracts from various philosophical writers. Some readers will be dull enough to prefer these extracts to the poem itself.

ART. VII. *An Address, in Verse, to the Author of the Poetical and Philosophical Essay on the French Revolution.* pp. 12. 4to. 1s. Owen. London, 1793.

IT was not to be expected that the poem we come from noticing, should pass without animadversion. The present address has been attributed to several eminent writers; whoever be the author of it, it will be confessed, that his poetical talents differ as widely from those of his adversary, as do his political sentiments. It equals, while it reminds us of the manner of the celebrated Heroic Epistle. The irony is well concealed, and conducted throughout with great felicity; it is a diamond which its brilliancy has rendered more keen. But an extract will enable the reader to perceive that we have not bestowed more commendation on this little poem than it merits:

‘ Each various region of the globe explore,
From India’s sultry clime to Zembla’s shore,
Nature’s parental bounty still you’ll find,
(To human wants and human weakness kind)
Where’er from noxious soils and sickly skies
Or pois’nous fruits, or baleful vapours rise,
Tempers with healthful gifts the climate’s woes,
And with the bane the antidote bestows.
Thus sultry suns that scorch the air, produce
The cooling orange and the anana’s juice;
And the rough bear that prowls the icy main,
Wraps with his shaggy hide the frozen swain.

‘ Thus, though Hibernia wasted from her strand
Aristocratic Burke to curse the land,
To scatter seeds of ill on false pretence,
Which fools mistake for sentiment and sense,
Yet happier offspring of the same rank field,
Lo! her prolific plains a C***T***Y yield,
To sense and sentiment whose genuine claim
Fools can’t mistake, nor calumny misname.
So when the assembled heroes sail’d of yore
From hostile Greece to Troy’s devoted shore,
The impartial fleet to equal merit true,
That bore Ulysses, bore Therfites too.

‘ O richly gifted with thy country’s grace!
Blest with impenetrable powers of face;
Whose brilliant jests, like thy *poissard’s* refin’d,
Leave Britain’s distanc’d Billing(gates behind;
Say, could no gleam of thy refulgent wit,
Whose flash so oft the Treasury-bench has hit,
Which whilem from that bench, in North’s good days,
Has dazzled Opposition with its blaze;

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Could no faint spark with transient light illumine
 Thy philosophic and poetic gloom?
 Poetry, such as patriotic bellmen reach,
 Philosophy that Gallic atheists preach?
 No—other charms to C***T**x's muse belong.
 Sacred to dullness flows the votive song.
 ' Yet blest the strain, how dull soe'er it roll,
 That rouses from her trance the moon-struck soul.
 Lull'd by the witching pow'rs of Edmund's prose,
 Those magic sounds where wit, where fancy glows.
 Prose, such as poets only can rehearse,
 Prose, not at all resembling C***T**x's verse,
 In visionary dreams I saw pourtray'd
 A scene, in hues of brilliant light array'd;
 I saw Britannia's fields their wealth display
 In every garb of rural plenty gay;
 I saw her looms the work incessant ply,
 To every breeze I saw her canvases fly;
 I heard, where'er the web its texture spread,
 Where'er her decks the wave-worn seamen tread,
 Where'er her sinewy peasants turn the soil,
 The song of freedom cheer the hour of toil;
 I felt th' impartial arm of equal law
 Protect the meanest, and the proudest awe.—
 Visions of glory, stay!—I pray in vain,
 Chill'd by the touch of his torpedo strain,
 At once the fairy scenes of pleasure fade,
 And darkness spreads around her midnight shade.
 No more the merchant's vent'rous prow explores,
 By commerce wafted, earth's remotest shores,
 Secure that law shall watch with guardian eye
 O'er the rich fruits of prosperous industry;
 No more shall agriculture till the soil,
 Certain to reap the produce of his toil.
 Panders and parasites, the sons of vice,
 The shameless crew of plunder, cards, and dice,
 The pamper'd minions of so dire a name,
 Compar'd with whom the brothel's sink is fame,
 Sweet womanhood's contempt and man's disgrace,
 The kiss fraternal reeking on their face.
 This motley race, with democratic pride,
 Sov'reigns of all, the spoils of all divide,
 Dispensing equal right, with pois'ous breath,
 To plunder, famine, misery, and death.'

We Reviewers have no objection to these poetical skirmishes between the aristocratic and democratic muses. We have only to lament, that the violence of party will not rest satisfied with lampooning each other.

ART. VIII. *An Excursion to the Peak of Teneriffe in 1791; being the Substance of a Letter to Joseph Jekyll, Esq. M. P. F. R. S. F. S. A. from Lieutenant Rye, of the Royal Navy.* pp. 34. 4to. 1s. Faulder. London, 1793.

THE Peak of Teneriffe is confessedly the most regular and magnificent of the volcanic mountains. Its snowy summit, towering far above the region of the clouds, the distant muttering thunder, and the gleams of lightning which occasionally burst from the darkened scenery, exhibit to the navigator a spectacle of matchless sublimity. Yet scientific travellers have generally been deterred by the danger of the enterprise from investigating the structure of this mountain. The observations of Mr. Heberden were confined to a part only; nor has even the height been accurately determined. We must applaud the resolution and intrepidity of Mr. Rye, and have only to regret that he was unprovided with philosophical instruments, and his mind not stored with mineralogical knowledge. This pamphlet is, nevertheless, entertaining, and contains some facts not unworthy of the naturalist's attention. The occasion of its publication, the author informs us, was a paragraph which lately appeared in the newspapers, stating that Sir George Staunton, secretary in the embassy to China, had found it impossible to gain the summit of Teneriffe. As Lieutenant Rye, in defiance of the expostulations of the natives, and in spite of the numerous impediments to his progress, had succeeded in the attempt, he was emboldened to offer his journal to the world.

On the 16th of April, 1791, the Gorgon, bound to New South Wales, anchored in the bay of Santa Cruz. Lieutenant Rye, and Mr. Burton the botanist, embraced this opportunity of visiting the Peak. They travelled on mules to the town of Oratava, over a country wildly irregular, but of extreme fertility. On their arrival, which was at two o'clock in the morning, they were refused admittance, and obliged to proceed, near another mile, to the house of a peasant, where they found the utmost difficulty in making themselves understood, till an old soldier appeared, who had been some time a prisoner in England. By his friendly mediation, they contracted, at the rate of eight dollars, for mules to carry them as far up the mountain as possible, and back again to Oratava. They also settled for provisions, which consisted of two or three salt fish, two dozen of hard eggs, one dozen of small loaves, and two gallons of wine. They now strolled out into the town, which is thus described:

* Oratava is situated on the side of a rugged hill, which slopes gradually to the sea. It commands the view of a fine bay, convenient
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for ships which have but a small draught of water, and in this place accordingly merchantmen of this description usually anchor. Besides the local advantages, they have here also other inducements, as wine, fruits, and vegetables, are got on board at the port of Oratava at a more reasonable rate than at Santa Cruz. This, indeed, is the most fertile side of the island, and in a great measure supplies all the rest. Nothing can be either more beautiful or more romantic than this charming place. The houses, it must be confessed, are low, but they are remarkably neat, and of white stone. The streets must not be passed over without their proper share of praise.—On one side they have a channel for a copious spring of the clearest and sweetest water, which in its passage over a rugged kind of pavement, murmurs most agreeably along. Every surrounding valley is a vineyard, watered by innumerable streams. Hills above hills, crowned with woods, elevate themselves to the clouds; and the stupendous Peak towering above the whole, renders the great mass of view most sublimely interesting. About four in the afternoon, our curiosity was attracted by the performance of some Roman Catholic ceremonies. An immense crowd of people followed certain images of our Saviour and St. Peter; these were placed on thrones, which were decorated with very beautiful artificial flowers, and surrounded by all the religious of the place. At every house of worship they halted; here they waved their censers, and sung anthems; after which they again proceeded. The attention of the people was frequently directed to the appearance of two strangers among them, and we could observe ourselves to be the objects of curiosity and conversation. The governor also was pleased to notice us; for when the ceremony of the procession ended, and the people were dispersed, a gentleman addressed us, as we were returning home, in good English, and desired us, in polite terms, to accompany him to the governor's house. We did not refuse his invitation, and were soon introduced to his excellency, his son, and several officers. They received us with much appearance of friendship, and in the course of conversation inquired the object of our excursion. We answered, that it was our desire to visit the Peak, and that early the next morning we intended to proceed, with the hope that our efforts would be successful. The governor, in reply, entreated us to lay aside our intentions; and indeed the whole company, without a single exception, avowed a similar opinion. They assured us, one and all, that such a thing had never been done at this season of the year, and that some who had set out with these intentions, had perished in the attempt. Finding, however, that they were unable to dissuade us from our purpose, they kindly recommended us closely to follow our conductors. The peasants, they said, who offer themselves as guides, live in the vicinity of the Peak, and obtain their livelihood principally from the ice, which, at proper periods, they bring down from a vast cavern at the distance of two miles from the summit! this consequently enabled them to decide both at what time, and how far they might venture. They added, that if we were even able to converse with them readily in their own language, they would not stay a moment

ment to reason with us, but would abruptly leave us if we attempted to advance a step farther than they deemed practicable.'

The description of their journey is picturesque:

'We were somewhat more than two miles from the town when the day broke, and exhibited to us very different scenes:—steep rugged precipices, wide yawning gulphs, and huge pendent rocks, threatening destruction to the traveller, presented themselves to our view. No vegetables occurred to relieve the eye, better or more lively than fern, heath, and Spanish broom. The guides, as we proceeded, frequently made an offer of their beasts, but this we refused constantly to accept, as we did not wish to give them any excuse for fatigue. Fortunately, perhaps, it was that we did so; for the time-worn saddles on which they rode would certainly have disabled us from proceeding farther than the plains. The exertion also of walking kept us temperately warm, which, as every thing was congealed around us, now became necessary. About ten o'clock we entered these plains, where so many travellers have lost their lives. Here we made a short pause, to contemplate the Peak in its sublimest point of view. The plains surrounding it were covered with lava; and it is to be remarked that these plains extended from seven to ten miles. With this lava were interspersed huge fragments of rock, which had evidently been hurled from the summit of the Peak. One of these rocks we measured, and we found its circumference betwixt sixty and seventy feet. In its form it was nearly globular. Some of them had the appearance of chimneys encrusted with smoke, others were black and shining as jet. Some of the rocks were entire, but most of them broken by the fall, and the separate parts projected at a considerable distance from each other.'

The travellers now experienced a sudden transition from cold to heat, and felt a difficulty of breathing, which was occasioned, not by the rarity of the air, but by an impalpable sulphureous dust raised from their feet. At noon they reached the first flight of rocks, above which is a steep called the 'Englishman's Resting-Place.' The guides refused to proceed much farther; but the sight of a small hanger produced an immediate compliance, and they were pushed forward by their adventurous employers. The difficulties increased; a violent piercing wind assailed them; they sunk up to the knees in lava; and, after laborious struggles, they were often hurled down with a mass of rubbish, and almost suffocated with dust. With infinite toil they at last reached the crater, which exhaled volumes of smoke:

'The crater is nearly circular; its depth is from forty to fifty paces; its diameter, at the top, is from seventy to an hundred paces. It is surrounded by steep and rugged rocks—its surface, at the bottom, is entirely covered with nitre. When this nitre is removed, brimstone is discovered. The bottom is full of cracks and fissures,
from

from whence, if you run a stick into them, issues a column of smoke. It was so hot, that we were obliged to be continually moving our feet, or they would have certainly been burned; and the rumbling, bubbling noise which assailed our ears, I can compare to nothing but the sound of an immense boiling cauldron.'

They spent an hour and an half on the summit of Teneriffe, collecting specimens of volcanic productions, which have been deposited in Mr. Parkinson's museum. In descending the mountain they suffered severely from excessive thirst, which obliged them to have recourse to snow. It was midnight before they reached Oratava; yet many of the neighbours came out to meet them, and expressed astonishment and admiration.

Art. IX. *Calvary; or, The Death of Christ. A Poem, in Eight Books.* By Richard Cumberland. pp. 291. 4to. 10s. 6d. boards. Dilly. London, 1792.

SINCE the days of our English Homer—we do not here mean Milton—but Sir Richard Blackmore, epics have been rarely produced, and have been as rarely read. The author of this poem is well known in the republic of letters; he has evinced talents, perhaps, in every species of composition; and whatever award we may give on his performances, we must commend his industry and ingenuity. But it is natural to suppose, that when a writer has the temerity to assume such a variety of shapes, that he will not sustain all his characters with eminence. And this certainly has been the case with our worthy author, who has disgusted men of taste at least as frequently as he has gratified them.

In prosaic composition Mr. Cumberland has been more successful than in poetic. We recollect none of his poetry which merits to be distinguished from the elegant mediocrity of the day; we confess there are occasional passages in his prose which abound with Addisonian ease and sweetness. The love of poetry is the love of our youth. We had expected that the *discernment* and good sense of Mr. Cumberland had weaned him from the lap of this treacherous Delilah. Our author made his *debut* in the literary world by 'Odes,' perhaps meant to be written in the manner of Gray; he is now terminating his literary career by an epic, perhaps meant to be written in the manner of Milton.

It will be acknowledged, that the latter attempt is far superior to the former. But it is still mere imitation; and justly has it been observed, by an esteemed critic, that no writer was ever great by *imitation*.

The

The religious dispositions of our author have induced him to adopt the present subject, which we conceive to be one of the most unhappy ideas a poet could well have chosen. We respect the intentions of such writers; but we wish always to remind them of the sentiments of Johnson on religious poetry, and the failure of many esteemed poets who have attempted similar themes. An excellent poet may be a sincere Christian; but it follows not that a sincere Christian is to be an excellent poet. Milton, we acknowledge, selected subjects which required to the full all his sublimity to alarm, and all his grace to soften, the heart. But Milton was a genuine poet; he therefore knew how to animate his subject by a skilful intermixture of incidents and of characters. If we wander through the depths of hell with terror and amazement, we likewise repose in the gardens of Paradise, and listen to the enchanting language of two persons, the most adapted, perhaps, in the whole range of poetry, to soothe, to interest, and to delight. In 'Calvary' we have a view, indeed, of the devils of Milton; but on earth we meet only with Jesus and Judas; the first no human description can exalt, and the other only disgusts by his depravity. In vain we look for something to supply the sweet arbours of Eden and the nuptial bowers of our primeval parents; we raise our eyes on 'Calvary,' and see nothing but persecution, lamentation, and crucifixion.

One would have imagined, that the failure of Milton himself on this subject would have deterred our author from the present attempt. In the 'Paradise Regained,' the mighty genius of the poet sunk under the weight of his theme. The actions of Jesus Christ are best narrated in the simple style of the evangelists. If Milton is found to give pleasure in the 'Paradise Regained,' it is precisely in those few passages in which Jesus is not mentioned; we mean, those fine sentiments on human life which he has addressed to our hearts with so much truth and so much force. But it is now too late to lament this failure of Mr. Cumberland; and we know how to respect and to value his labours.

After giving our sentiments thus freely, it remains for us to bring forward specimens of this poem; and they shall be those with which we conceive the reader will be most gratified.

The following description of Satan will be acknowledged to be a strong imitation of Milton, and has fair claims to praise:

' 'Twas night, when Satan, prince of darkness call'd,
And fitly call'd, for evil hates the day,
Walk'd forth on hellish meditation bent,
Prowling the wilderness: where'er he trode
Earth quak'd beneath his foot; before him roll'd

Thick

Thick cloud and vapour, making night's dark shade
More black and terrible; the beasts of prey,
Every wild thing that roams the savage waste
And howling to the moon demands its food,
Fled his approach; the lion and the pard
Scented the blast and sunk into their dens;
For whilst his breast with raging passions boil'd,
Hatred, revenge, and blasphemous despite,
The sighs he vented from the hell within
Breath'd death into the air; his haggard eyes,
Which still in speechless agonies he roll'd,
Out-glar'd the hyena's; other fires than their's
To light his dismal path he needed none.

Now, having stretch'd athwart the sandy wild
Clear to its rocky verge, the arch-fiend paus'd
And upward cast his eye, if haply there
Darkling he might discern what faucy mound
Dar'd to arrest his course; for yet there dwelt
Such vigour in his wing, nor depth, nor height,
Mountains nor seas might check his bold career,
Were he so purpos'd; neither would he deign
To ask one charitable star for light,
Thoughtful of former glory, when he soar'd
Son of the morning far above their spheres.

Whereat he 'gan put forth his plumed vans
From either shoulder stretch'd for flight, when soon
The fuel'd clouds to fierce encounter rush'd,
Loud thunders bellow'd, and the lightning's flash
Smote on the craggy cliff; at sight whereof
Conscious that now he press'd the fatal spot,
Where late he commun'd with the Son of God,
Who for the space of forty days and nights
Foil'd every vain device, with shame abash'd
And pondering in his mind his foul defeat,
Down, down at once his flagging pinions fell
Close cowering to his ribs: as some proud ship
Between the tropics o'er th' Atlantic wave
Speeding amain to reach her destin'd port,
If chance th' experienc'd mariner espies
The gathering hurricane, no stay, no stop,
Quick to the yard each swelling sail is furl'd,
The curl'd waves whitening as the torrent drives,
And soon her taunt and lofty topmast lower'd
Strikes to the gale; so he his towering height,
That to angelic stature now had swell'd,
Shrunk into human size, nor other seem'd
Than pilgrim squalid and with years and toil
Bending decrepit, when from his full heart
Words intermixt with groans thus forc'd their way.

In the following passage Christ is shewn sitting in the midst of his disciples at his last supper. He addresses them in the solemn and affecting terms recorded by St. John. He washes their feet, and points out his betrayer in the person of Judas, who was present. The whole passage in the poem is dull; but the following quotation displays forcible description. The Lord says,

————— ‘ The time draws nigh
 When I shall speak no more with you on earth;
 Ye have all heard; how blest if ye obey!
 I speak not of you all: whilst here ye sit
 In seeming fellowship around my board,
 Sharing this social meal, my last on earth,
 Doubt not but I can search into your breasts,
 And see whose hearts are loyal, whose is false;
 And mark me well, I fall not by man’s wiles,
 Not unpredicted is the trait’rous act,
 And well I know the wretch, whose faithless hand
 Dips with me in the dish, shall soon be dy’d
 With my devoted blood. Betray’d I am,
 Deceiv’d I cannot be.—This when they heard,
 Each with the other interchang’d a look
 Of question and suspect; speechless they star’d,
 Confounded and aghast: as men drawn forth
 For decimation tremble to unfold
 The lot of life or death, so these in doubt
 On whom the word of prophecy might light;
 Curious yet fearful to inquire of CHRIST,
 Search’d their own hearts in silence. All perceiv’d
 Omniscience, which to God alone belongs,
 Familiar with their thoughts, and every soul,
 Save that dire wretch whom conscience inly smote;
 Trembled lest unpremeditated guilt
 Might be denounc’d upon him, or the sin
 Of one man, as of Korah, move the Lord
 With the whole congregation to be wroth.
 But Peter, in whose ever anxious mind
 These terrors undispell’d long could not dwell,
 To the belov’d disciple, on the breast
 Of CHRIST reclining, now gave sign to ask
 The fearful question, in what traitor’s heart
 Plot so accurs’d could harbour. Thus besought,
 Though much his humble nature fear’d offence,
 In accent soft, with supplicating eye
 Turn’d on the Master, the meek suitor said,
 Lord, shew thy true and faithful servants grace,
 And let us know the traitor.—He it is,
 JESUS replied, on whom I shall bestow
 This sop, when I have dipp’d it in my cup.

• He

• He said, and as he plung'd the morsel in,
All eyes were fixed upon the fatal work,
Wond'ring on whom he would bestow the spell;
And soon with silent horror they beheld
The saturated sop to Judas giv'n,
Pledge of perdition; he with greedy haste
Devour'd it, by the fiend within him urg'd;
For Mammon to the dark divan had told
The joyful tidings, and had posted back
Swift as the magic whirlwind conjur'd up
By all hell's wizard imps could drive him on,
And now fate nestling in the traitor's heart,
Brooding his filthy spawn: great was the joy
Of the infernal tempter, thus to find
That guardian Pow'r, whose providence he fear'd,
By these symbolic elements withdrawn,
And his apostate victim now cast out
From the Lord's supper, alien from God's grace,
And soul-surrender'd to hell's gloomy realm.

Now, as the spell within him 'gan to work,
The traitor's visage, like the troubled sea
Uptorn and furrow'd with tempestuous winds,
Shifted its hues, now deadly pale, aghast
And horror-struck, now fiery red, deform'd
With hellish rage, and from man's semblance chang'd
To very demon, terrible to fight.
Oh! what a fall from heav'n to deeper hell
Than thought can fathom, horrors worse than heart
Of man; unless abandon'd of his God,
Can suffer or conceive! Words do but fail
To paint that unreveal'd abyss, those depths
Of the immeasurable profound, where groans,
Wailings, and woes and tossings amidst fires
Unquenchable await the wretch condemn'd!

• Meanwhile in cloudless majesty and mild
The Saviour's face divine on all around
Efulgent beam'd; about his temples shone
A radiant glory: this when Judas saw,
Whom now the spirit of darkness had possess'd,
And none such in the sphere of that pure light
Long could abide, he started from his couch
Prepar'd for flight, when thus in few the Lord—
Go then! and what thou hast in hand to do,
Do quickly; so depart!—The word of power,
Though gentle yet commanding, Judas heard;
And instantly the spirit took him thence;
Nor could he not obey, for so rebuk'd
The prince of hell, Satan himself, had fled.
The faithful remnant sat in mute suspense,
Pondering what this dismissal might import.

Milton has charmed his readers with those little descriptions which he has given of himself; Mr. Cumberland, in imitation probably, has also drawn his own portrait, which we give with great pleasure to the reader:

‘ Musing my pious theme, as fits a bard
Far onward in the wintry track of age,
I shun the muses haunts, nor dalliance hold
With fancy by the way, but travel on
My mournful road, a pilgrim grey with years;
One that finds little favour with the world,
Yet thankful for its least benevolence
And patient of its taunts; for never yet
Lur’d I the pop’lar ear with gibing tales,
Or sacrific’d the modesty of song,
Harping lewd madrigals at drunken feasts
To make the vulgar sport and win their shout.
Me rather the still voice delights, the praise
Whisper’d, not publish’d by fame’s braying trump;
Be thou my herald, Nature! Let me please
The sacred few, let my remembrance live
Embosom’d by the virtuous and the wise;
Make me, O Heav’n! by those, who love thee, lov’d:
So when the widow’s and the children’s tears
Shall sprinkle the cold dust, in which I sleep
Pompless and from a scornful world withdrawn,
The laurel, which its malice rent, shall shoot
So water’d into life, and mantling throw
Its verdant honours o’er my grassy tomb.

‘ Here in midway of my unfinish’d course,
Doubtful of future time whilst now I pause
To fetch new breath and trim my waning lamp,
Fountain of life, if I have still ador’d
Thy mercy and remember’d thee with awe
Ev’n in my mirth, in the gay prime of youth—
So conscience witnesses, the mental scribe,
That registers my errors, quits me here—
Propitious Pow’r, support me! and if death,
Near at the farthest, meditates the blow
To cut me short in my prevented talk,
Spare me a little, and put by the stroke,
Till I recount his overthrow and hail
Thy Son victorious rising from the grave.’

What we object to most in this poem is, too many verses deficient both in sentiment and harmony. Surely our author does not regard the harsh lines of Milton as beauties: why such were ever admitted, excepting in those passages which are transcribed from the holy writings, it would be difficult to account.

Such

Such verses as the following can gratify no ear which delights in poetry:

' Let not your heart be troubled ; ye believe
In God, believe also in me his son—'

' Shall I then say, Father, avert this hour,
And save me from these agonies ? Not so !—'

' And truly to this purpose was I born,
And for this cause came I into the world,
That I should witness bear unto the truth.'—

Are these passages meant to imitate the simplicity of the evangelical language ?

On the whole, we wish Mr. Cumberland had devoted his hours of elegant retirement to researches into ancient literature, or observations on human life. He will not probably join in our opinion; we nevertheless imagine, that his '*OBSERVER*' will be read when his present production is forgotten. Yet we are far from affirming, that there is no poetical merit in the poem of *CALVARY*.

ART. X. *A Commentary on Apoplectic and Paralytic Affections; and on Diseases connected with the Subject.* By Thomas Kirkland, M. D. Member of the Royal Medical Society, Edinburgh; of the Medical Society, London; and of the Agricultural Society, Leicestershire. pp. 191. 8vo. 3s. Dawson. London, 1792.

DR. Kirkland informs us, that, from the appearances in dead bodies, from observations in practice, and from the good effects which have followed the use of opium, and other stimulant sedatives, in the cure of nervous apoplexies and palsies, under certain restrictions, he has long been dissatisfied with the prevailing opinions concerning those diseases. With regard to this avowed dissatisfaction Dr. Kirkland is far from being singular. We not only concur with him in the acknowledgment, but are acquainted with many physicians who entertain the same sentiments on the subject. The late Dr. Fothergill, after a long course of medical practice and experience, scrupled not to declare, that he was impressed with doubts relative to the established opinions, and common method of treatment, respecting both the complaints above mentioned. He wished to see them submitted to a new and careful examination; and that a practice, somewhat different from that generally adopted, should be

recommended upon principles which led to more successful rules of prescription than had yet been discovered.

The subject is therefore re-considered in the present commentary by Dr. Kirkland, who takes a view both of the theory and practice in the two diseases from the time of Hippocrates. He begins with a brief historical account of apoplexies in general; shewing that various and very different disorders have been comprised under the denomination of apoplectic, even by Hippocrates himself. These incongruous associations he afterwards endeavours to distinguish from each other, and recites the method of cure which he has found most successful, under circumstances. He rejects the systematical division of apoplexies into serous and sanguineous, and assigns the most general cause of them to nervous irritation.

It would lead us into too extensive a recital to follow our author through the whole series of observations and arguments which he adduces; but we shall select a quotation which affords the most competent idea of the practice recommended:

‘ It may be observed, that a loss of blood, to whatever extent carried, affords not any relief in the vehement apoplexy; and yet much dependence has always been had upon bleeding indiscriminately, in every disease which has been called an apoplexy. Nor was the propriety of such practice doubted, till Heberden suspected that mischief may be done by it in this disease. Afterwards Fothergill, from his mature judgment, was of opinion that it often occasioned the destruction of the patient; but not specifying the apoplexy to which his strictures were applicable, even he himself could not speak with precision on the subject; and his observations have not, therefore, as far as I can discover, yet claimed that regard they deserve.

‘ The arrangement we have made, it is hoped, will supply this defect, for by attending to the distinction betwixt the nervous apoplexy, and the coma or apoplexy, as it has been called, arising from plethora, it will in general be obvious when to bleed and when to let it alone. It is the nervous apoplexy to which his observations belong, where the brain and nerves have lost their power, and the vital principle is so much injured, that there is more or less an approach towards death. Consequently whatever lessens these powers must hasten this kind of termination. There is not any thing, it is well known, that weakens the vital powers more than bleeding, when considerable; nor can I see in what manner the loss of blood can afford relief where compression, distention, or inflammation, is not the cause of the disease. Wherefore, in this point of view, what Fothergill has said about bleeding in apoplexies, appears to me to be well founded, and to be deserving of the most serious attention.

‘ Should inflammatory symptoms, however, happen to accompany this disease, and indicate the necessity of a loss of blood, it will be

better

better to make this evacuation at different times, because by this means there will be less hazard of taking more blood away than ought to be lost. Fothergill very properly observes, that the pulse, in such a situation, is often an insufficient guide; and I wish it to be considered, whether the agitation we meet with in it does not shew diseased state of the nerves, which forbids this operation. More dependence is to be had upon vomiting and purging, and seemingly the effects of vomits are not to be dreaded in this instance, where there is no plethora. I have ordered them myself, and have repeatedly seen them ordered by others, with safety and advantage. After this first step towards clearing the *primæ viæ*, purges should follow. I have seen the best effects from opening the bowels with small doses of saline purges three or four times a day for several days together; but along with these opium should be given.

With respect to the true palsy, Dr. Kirkland observes, that it is an affection of the substance of the brain itself, whether in the head, or in the nerves; in consequence of which it ceases to be a conductor of that power which occasions muscular motion. From this view of the disease it follows, that, to relieve the patient, recourse must be had to those remedies which act principally upon the brain and nerves. Our author, being convinced that medicines which irritate increase the complaint, and that opium, on the contrary, relieves it, was led to conclude that irritating remedies were not apposite to the cure of this malady, and ought not to be admitted; but that those things which *animate* the nerves, and quiet the derangement they suffer, of which the principal is opium, were more likely to do service.

In explanation of the above remark, we must attend to a definition expressed by our author in the preface, where he observes, that the words *irritate* and *stimulate* are commonly used as synonymous terms; but in this Commentary they are employed with very different meanings. To irritate, in the sense used by Dr. Kirkland, is to heat and inflame, or at least it has a tendency to inflame; whereas to stimulate is to warm, cheerify, and exhilarate, without fretting and inflaming.

In this Commentary Dr. Kirkland supports his pathological opinions with judicious remarks, and recommends the proposed practice by a number of cases, which appear to confirm its utility.

ART. XI. *A Voyage to Madagascar and the East Indies. By the Abbé Reaumont, Member of the Academies of Sciences of Paris and Peterburgh, Astronomer of the Marine, Keeper of the King's Philosophical Cabinet, Inspector of Machines, Money, &c. Translated from the French. Illustrated with an accurate Map of the Island of Madagascar. To which is added, a Memoir on the Chinese Trade.* pp. 475. 8vo. 7s. boards. Robinsons. London, 1792.

THE island of Madagascar lies between the twelfth and twenty-sixth degrees of southern latitude. According to several learned geographers, it is the Cerne of Pliny, and the Minuthiasde of Ptolemy. The superficies of this large island, so much celebrated for the fertility of its soil, and the variety of its productions, is supposed to contain two hundred millions of acres of excellent land. It is watered on all sides by streams and large rivers, and, above all, by a great number of small rivulets, which have their sources at the bottom of that long chain of mountains which separate the eastern from the western coast. The two highest mountains in the island are Vigagora in the north, and Botistmene in the south; both which contain abundance of fossils and valuable minerals.

The traveller describes the mountainous part of the island as intersected by ridges and valleys, where the eye beholds awful precipices, the summits of which are covered with trees, as ancient, perhaps, as the world; and the ear is assailed with the noise of immense cascades, rendered by their situation inaccessible. These picturesque scenes are succeeded by rural prospects, delightful hills, and plains where vegetation is never interrupted by the severity and vicissitude of the seasons. Extensive savannas afford nourishment to numerous herds of cattle, and flocks of sheep. Fields of great extent are covered with rice and potatoes; while the only labour of the inhabitants is to turn up the soil slightly with a pick-axe; by which simple and easy culture it is said to produce an hundred fold.

Timber fit for masts, and for constructing ships, is no less common than that employed by carpenters and cabinet-makers; and all the forests abound with plants unknown to botanists; some of which are aromatic and medicinal, and others fit for dying.

The natives of Madagascar are portly in their persons, being generally above the middle stature. The colour of their skin is different: among one tribe it is of a deep black, and among another tawny; some have a copper-coloured tint; but the complexion of the greater part is olive. All those who are black

black have woolly hair, like the negroes on the coast of Africa. Those who are of a complexion similar to that of the Indians and Mulattoes, have as lank hair as the Europeans. Their nose is not flat; they have a broad open forehead, their lips are thin, and their features are regular and agreeable.

The inhabitants of the island are divided into a great number of tribes, amounting, in the whole, as has been supposed, to about four millions; but this computation the Abbé Rochon considers as exaggerated. A tribe is composed of several villages, which have all a particular chief, who is sometimes elected, but for the most part succeeds by hereditary right. The lands, without being divided, belong to those who perform the easy task of cultivating them. Among this people, hunger regulates the hours of repast. Their food consists of very white rice, exceedingly light, and well boiled; which they besprinkle with a kind of soup, made from fish or flesh, and seasoned with pimento, ginger, saffron, and a few aromatic herbs. This simple dish is served up in the leaves of the *ravin*, which are generally used for plates and spoons.

The southern part of Madagascar, where Fort Dauphine stands, is described as populous. Almost all the villages are built upon eminences; they are surrounded by two rows of strong pallisades, within which is a parapet of earth four feet in height. Large bamboos, placed at the distance of five feet from each other, and sunk to a considerable depth in the ground, serve to strengthen the pallisades: but some of those villages are fortified also by a ditch ten feet in breadth, and six in depth.

The chiefs always go armed with a *susee* and a stick headed with iron, to the extremity of which is affixed a small bunch of cow's hair. They cover their heads with a cap made of red woollen cloth, by which they are distinguished from their subjects.

The people of the province of Carcanossi, we are told, are not entirely ignorant of the art of writing. They have even some historical books in the Madecasse language; but their learned men use only the Arabic characters. They have among them treatises on medicine and judicial astrology. Their paper is made from the Papyrus Nilotica, their pens of the bamboo, and their ink from the bark of a tree which they call *Arandrato*.

The author observes, it is surprising that Mahometanism has not made greater progress in this island, which has been so much frequented by the Arabs. If we except circumcision, abstinence from pork, and a few trifling practices which have very little influence over the conduct of this people, the descendants of the Arabs themselves have lost sight of the fundamental parts

of their religious opinions. They do not believe in a future existence; like the Manichees, they admit of two principles, one supremely good, and the other extremely wicked. They never address their prayers to the former, but entertain a great dread of the latter, to whom they are continually doing homage, and offering up sacrifices. The following extract contains information respecting the manners of this people:

' A plurality of wives is not uncommon here among the chiefs, and those who are rich; but they never espouse more than one legally; the rest are considered as concubines. This practice is not attended with disagreeable consequences in Madagascar; for all these women live in harmony together. Besides, a divorce may take place as often as the conjugal union displeases either the husband or the wife. When they part, however, by mutual consent, they restore to each other the property they possessed before marriage. In Madagascar adultery is looked upon as a robbery, and as such is punished. These people, therefore, pay the utmost respect to marriage; they forewarn strangers to behave with decency to their wives; but they offer them their daughters, and think themselves much honoured when they have children by them. Married women may be known by their hair, which is separated into tresses, and bound up in the form of a nosegay on the top of the head. Young women suffer it to fall carelessly over their shoulders. Husbands are always in high spirits when with their wives; their presence inspires them with joy; as soon as they perceive them, they begin to dance and to sing; and they continually repeat that they loathe the cares of life. The Malagache women appear to be happy, and are generally in good humour. Their lively, cheerful, and equal temper, is peculiarly pleasing to the Europeans.

' While the Malagaches are at war, their women sing and dance incessantly, throughout the whole day, and even during a part of the night. They imagine that these continual dances animate their husbands, and increase their vigour and courage. They scarcely allow themselves time to enjoy their meals. When the war is ended, they assemble, at sun-set, and renew their singing and dancing, which always begin with much noise, and the sound of various instruments. Their songs are either panegyrics or satires; and appeared to me to interest the spectators very much. Such sports are a kind of useful lessons, in which glorious deeds are celebrated, and contemptible actions ridiculed.

The north-east part of the island of Madagascar is a rich magazine for the colonies in the isles of France and Bourbon. The most frequented ports are Foullepoincte, St. Mary, and the Bay of Antongil. It is in these places that the French have attempted to form all their establishments.

The northern part of Madagascar is said to be much more fertile in productions of every kind than the southern; on which

which account it is more frequented by European vessels; but the interior part of the country has never yet been visited.

The King of CochinChina, we are told, is rich in gold and silver, of which the author affirms that he has always some edifices full. His great wealth arises from a tax paid by all his subjects between the age of nineteen and that of sixty. This tax is greater or less according to the strength and situation of each individual. Every three years the governor of each province causes a new list to be made out of all those who, according to law, have attained to the proper age of taxation. To enable him to do this, the chief of every village forms a list with great care, and carries a copy of it to the governor, who orders all those whose names are inserted in it to appear before him on the day appointed. They all strip themselves from head to foot; the mandarin then causes his officers to examine them; when such as are robust and well-proportioned, and who seem to have most strength to labour, are taxed at a higher rate than those who are feeble, or in a bad state of health. This tax, which goes into the king's treasury, is paid either in gold, silver, or rice; and every year, in the seventh month, the whole is transported to court with great pomp and magnificence. On this occasion there are great rejoicings in the capital for a month; during which time the people are employed in feasting and merriment.

The religion of this country is the same as that of China. The people frequent pagodas erected in honour of Fo-hi and Tchoua; while the mandarins present themselves in the temple of Confucius, whom they venerate as much as the Chinese.

The greater part of this volume consists of an historical detail of the progress of the French in Madagascar; intermixed with few facts of any importance, and with little to gratify curiosity. The memoir on the Chinese trade contains an account of the natural productions of that country; and both the *Voyage* and *memoir* appear to be faithfully translated;

ART. XII. *Observations on the Nature and Method of Cure of the Phthisis Pulmonalis, or Consumption of the Lungs; from Materials left by the late William White, M. D. F. A. S. and now published by A. Hunter, M. D. F. R. S. L. and R. S. E.* pp. 159. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. York, printed; Murray, London. 1792.

THIS treatise commences with an account of the hæmoptysis, or spitting of blood; a disease distinguished into four different species, depending each on their respective causes, and

which leads to the pulmonary consumption. The latter is said to exist when the body gradually becomes emaciated by a hectic fever, the consequence of inflammation, or absorption of purulent matter from the lungs. Of the remote and proximate causes of this formidable disease we are presented, in the work before us, with a particular examination, in which the author reasons on every individual symptom, with the view of discovering more certain data towards the establishment of a rational method of cure.

Amongst the occasional causes of the pulmonary consumption, some writers have added worms in the intestines, in young children; but our author justly questions the propriety of such a supposition. Many children, he observes, die of a true phthisis, and may void worms during the course of that disease; as few children, even those who enjoy the best health, are entirely free from them; but it does not follow that they are the cause of the consumption.

The caution recommended by Mr. White, relative to the state of the pulse in inflammations of the lungs, cannot be too frequently enforced. It is of the greatest importance to observe, that a quick and weak pulse attends every peripneumony, or inflammation of the lungs; and being the more remarkable in proportion to the violence of the disease, it may often deter the practitioner from using the lancet freely.

In describing the symptoms of the pulmonary consumption, our author makes some remarks on the hectic fever, which correspond with the account given by Dr. Heberden in the second volume of the Medical Transactions, and are highly worthy of attention:

- The chillness of the hectic fever is sometimes succeeded by heat, and sometimes immediately by a sweat, without any intermediate state of heat; and the heat sometimes comes on without any remarkable previous chillness; and the chillness has been observed to go off without being followed either by heat or sweat.

- The hectic fever is little, or not at all, relieved by the coming on of the sweat; but the patient is often as anxious and restless in the sweat, as in the chillness and heat. When the sweat is over, the fever will sometimes continue, and in the middle of the fever the chillness will return, which is a most certain mark of this fever; almost all others begin with a chillness; but the return of it, so as to last half an hour, or longer, while the fever is strong upon the patient, is what I never saw, except only in this fever.

- The hectic fever will return with great exactness, like a quotidian, or tertian, or quartan, for two or perhaps three fits; but I do not remember ever to have known it keep the same period for four fits together. The fit will now and then keep off for ten or twelve days; and, at other times, especially when the patient is very ill, it will return

return so frequently on the same day, that the chilness of a new fit will follow immediately the sweat of a former.'

Another observation made by our author in this part of the work is likewise of great importance in practice; it is, that the fever attending every consumption is not properly the hectic or putrid. Some consumptions are not attended with suppuration, consequently the concomitant fever must be of a very different nature, and require a different mode of treatment. In many patients the suppuration is accompanied by a considerable inflammation, by which the inflammatory and putrid symptoms will be so mixed together, as to render the type of the attending fever very variable and confused.

The following observations upon the nature of the fever accompanying consumptions deserve to be extracted :

• Frequent acute stitches in the breast, with great oppression, sense of straitness, and constant cough, especially upon sudden motion and deep inspirations; a troublesome heat and dryness of the skin; a hot breath; a quick and hard pulse; less sensible remissions of the fever; thirst and dryness of the tongue; loss of appetite, and high-coloured urine; are signs of considerable inflammation.

• It is sometimes difficult to distinguish these inflammatory stitches in the breast from the sharp erratic pains caused by flatus pent up in the flexures of the colon: this latter disorder, arising from indigestion, is called *pleurodynia flatulenta*, and is the very reverse of an inflammatory symptom, being the natural consequence of the weak and tender bowels of those who have been debilitated by diseases, and suffered from too violent evacuations. Hence the necessity of distinguishing them, as requiring a method of cure almost opposite to each other.

• Fœtid breath, and a similar condition of the matter spit up; constant nausea, or sickness; great weakness and dejection; a small, languid, yet quick pulse; profuse, weakening, and offensive sweats; a troublesome, scalding heat, difficult to express, yet different from the inflammatory; pale muddy urine, in considerable quantity; a constant moisture upon the skin, even when the patient is chilly; fœtid, colliquative loosenesses; giddiness and headaches; shew the putrid diathesis to prevail, and the danger to be great.'

• It is a question much agitated, whether or not the pulmonary consumption be an infectious disease. With regard to this controversy, our author's remarks are judicious. If the purulent matter in the lungs be merely inflammatory exudation, there is of course no admixture of putrid matter with it; no solution of continuity, no ulcerations in the lungs; and in this state Mr. White believes the disease not to be contagious. But when there are ulcers in the lungs, and the matter is consequently contaminated with putrid particles, he entertains no doubt that the

the disease must certainly be contagious ; and that the effluvia, when taken into the body of a sound person, will act as a septic ferment.

Some late systematical authors have thought it sufficient for practice to divide the pulmonary consumption into two kinds, the phthisis sicca, and mucosa. This division our author considers as inaccurate, and tending to introduce a degree of confusion in the diagnosis and cure. From his own observations and experiments, made upon the different kinds of matter, spit up by consumptive patients, he is convinced that there are really two species of this disease, very different from each other in their causes, symptoms, and cure ; one of them proceeding from inflammation alone, the other from ulcers.

On mentioning these two species, it may be proper to observe, that our author's intention is only to treat of such consumptions as are idiopathic, or independent on other diseases ; the symptomatic consumptions, as the scrophulous, &c. being merely consequences of diseases of a different nature, in which the particular cause must be removed, before the effect can cease.

The nature and cure both of the inflammatory and ulcerous consumptions are treated by the author with great precision and judgment ; but so great is the number of important remarks on each, that, for a satisfactory view of them, we are under the necessity of referring our readers to the work. The observations it contains are peculiarly valuable, as the pulmonary consumption, we are told, was familiar to the author in his own person ; and they derive additional recommendation from their coinciding with the sentiments of so experienced a physician as Dr. Hunter.

ART. XIII. *The Count de Hoenfderu ; a German Tale.* By the Author of *Constance, the Pharos, Argus, &c. &c.* pp. 813. 12mo. 3 vols. 9s. sewed. Hookham. London, 1792.

OF all the productions of this author the present appears to us to be the best. The Baron de Bergzeyl possessed, in right of his wife, a large estate, which was to devolve to his children, if he should have sons. The Baroness, however, dies soon after the birth of one child, a daughter. The avaricious Baron, wishing to preserve the estate in his own family, clothes and educates his child as a male, under the appellation of the Count de Hoenfderu. For the better prosecution of his plan, he retires to a solitary place called Lauffen, where for some years not the least suspicion is entertained of the real sex of his child.

In

In this solitude, however, he becomes acquainted with Colonel Lufingen and his family, which acquaintance at length produces a discovery of the imposition. The Baron is immediately reduced to the necessity of quitting Germany, and Ypsilanti his daughter retires to England. It would be foreign to our purpose to enter more particularly into the narrative; suffice it to say, that, after many, many 'moving accidents by flood and field,' the heroine is made happy by marrying the real Count de Hoenfeldern. The tale is interesting and well told, the characters drawn with a vigorous pencil, and there are several pleasing episodes interwoven with the main plot. Of these the most affecting is the story of Baron de Greufs, part of which our readers will not be angry with us for extracting:

'But half satisfied, I set out, taking my family with me, in hopes of fixing them in the village: this I did to my satisfaction on the day of our arrival, and the next morning we had intelligence, that the relief was coming up by forced marches, having heard that the Count de Pochl was to join us at noon. From within the garrison I also learnt that an attack made *before* this reinforcement arrived, would be attended with certain success, as the men, worn out with long and severe duty, and now elated with the prospect of relief, were entirely off their guard; but adhering strictly to my written orders, I dared not stir a finger, had the salvation of the whole western empire depended on it.

'Scouts came in every hour with news that made us ashamed of the inactivity we were compelled to; and so evident was the advantage now presented to us, that I began seriously to apprehend that it would be impossible to restrain the ardour of the men.

'With great difficulty and the utmost persuasion I kept them quiet till two o'clock, at which time we knew the relief was within three hours march of us: the garrison seemed totally careless, and not a man of the Count de Pochl's was in sight. A complete hour I waited; and then imagining some unforeseen accident had detained them, and that I really should *deserve* censure for losing so fair an opportunity, I gave way to the impetuosity of the men, made a sudden attack on the enemy's outworks, carried them, and, sword in hand, led the way to scale a wall before us. We succeeded in this attempt, and, after a sharp contest of about an hour and an half, in which I got severely wounded, the garrison surrendered, and I had the pleasure of taking possession of this important post in the name of the King of Prussia.

'We had scarcely secured the prisoners, when the relief appeared in sight; they were ignorant of the capture of the place till galled by the guns from it. Panic struck, they halted, and seemed entirely at a loss. I directed a *sortie* to be made, and they presently retreated; the Count de Pochl's van coming up just in time to see the dust they raised in their flight.

'Malice

Malice herself, I thought, could not affix any censure to what I had done: I had punctually fulfilled my orders, and had accomplished a purpose of the first consequence, as, had the junction been formed between the garrison and the relief, the whole of our army, in its passage across the country, was exposed to a most galling cannonade; and I knew it had been determined in council, that till this place was reduced, nothing effectual could be done. But my fiend-like cousin, in his inexhaustible invention, found cause of complaint against me. By quitting my station he alleged that, however I had proved my courage, and risked the lives of the men I was intrusted with, I had done no efficient service, as the reinforcement we had put to flight had immediately thrown up works, and intrenched themselves in our road, only two miles farther off; and that having sent to their main army an account of what had befallen the garrison, supplies were incessantly sent off to them. Beside this diminution of my praise, he asserted, that had I not officiously anticipated my orders, I should have fallen in with a body of three thousand Austrians, whom sickness and want of provisions had reduced to such a state, that they were believed to have thrown themselves in our way out of mere desperation.

In answer to these calumnies, I could only refer to what I had achieved, and leave it to the judgment of impartial persons to decide, whether I could be employed in two places at once; whether it was to be expected, that I should seize an advantage it could not be proved I had ever heard of till it was past; and which was the most important service, the getting possession of a post the king himself had declared indispensable necessary to his progress, or the making three thousand prisoners of men sinking into the grave, and to whom all the provisions we could have procured would scarcely have furnished subsistence for a day?

I should weary you with my detail, were I to enumerate half the mortifications I suffered during a month that our regiment was quartered here: I not only was disappointed of all reward and all attention from his majesty, but reduced, in every company where I wished for credit, to vindicate my conduct and defend myself, as if before a court-martial. At length, driven almost to distraction by the repeated ill-treatment my cousin loaded me with, and chance affording me an opportunity of expressing my sense of it to his face, I insisted on having my conduct regularly inquired into. He laughed at my resentment, and so far provoked me, that I unhesitatingly told him, he was a robber and an assassin, at the same time, in the unguarded heat of anger, half-unsheathing my sword. Here my imprudence had given him the advantage of me. I was unaccompanied, he had a friend with him. The matter was immediately reported to the General: it was, without a word by way of reason assigned, buzzed abroad that I had attempted to run my colonel through the body, and I was put under an arrest.

There was no danger now in granting me the military form of justice. Testimonials of my fault were carried to the King, and he, according

according to the severity of his discipline, ordered me to be reduced to the ranks during his pleasure. I had no way of helping myself, for my wife and children were impediments to my doing whatever a sense of injury might have prompted me to, and I was forced to abide the ungrateful storm of regal displeasure, as long as it should last, still hoping great things at the conclusion of the campaign, when I doubted not I should be able to state my grievances, and prosecute my rights so as to get, at least, a *bearing* from his majesty.

My distresses were now very great, and want of money not the least of them; but in a short time the excess of the evil I smarted under seemed to promise a cure of it. Many of the officers and subalterns of our regiment, not interfering in the personal quarrel between the Count and myself, but convinced that my services had met with a return they by no means deserved, interested themselves for me, and stirred in my cause. Facts were stated anew to his Majesty; I was restored to my rank. My cousin was given to understand that his conduct was censurable, and we were mutually required to apologise. Convinced that I had acted unjustifiably in suffering private circumstances to get the better of respect to my superior officer, I without murmuring obeyed; and my cousin thought proper not only to do as commanded, but took some pains to convince me that he was more my friend than I believed, and that his harshness often proceeded from fear lest the nearness of our consanguinity might induce a suspicion in others that he was more lenient to me than to the rest: nay, in this conference he hinted at the private cause of our animosity, and seemed perfectly content that the laws of Prussia should decide between us.

My heart was lightened: I began to think less unfavourably of the Count de Poehl; and I returned to my wife with glad tidings. I thought she was less rejoiced than she should have been, and I was grieved when I fancied her spirit was now irrecoverably born down by mortification and anxiety. How greatly I mistook the cause of her dejection, a few days shewed.

My cousin, after our treaty of amity, had professed himself desirous of living on such terms as became our situations, and was now our frequent visitor. He possessed the power of pleasing beyond any man I ever knew, and his abilities to confer benefits gaining him attention every where, he was generally liked where the deep malice of his character did not unveil itself. Injured as we had been by him, I thought I perceived my wife listened with too ready an ear to his proffered friendship. I gave her an hint to beware of him. She justified her conduct to my satisfaction, by pleading, that concern for her children's interests made her smother her resentment. But she deceived me. She had listened not only to the language of friendship, but of love; and a very short period convinced me, that the Count de Poehl had possession of her heart and person.

It was on his part a passion very different from love that had actuated my insidious relation. It was solely a desire of being revenged on me. The injury was entirely levelled at me; and as soon as the world was thoroughly aware of my disgrace, when he had so

far

far prevailed on her as to make her desert her family, and live openly with him, rioting in all the luxury of her situation, he on a sudden stripped her of all that had bribed her virtue, and with an insulting message sent her back to me.

The distresses of my mind had worn my constitution; and on this completion of them, her abandoning me, I fell into a violent fever, from which my intellects were scarcely cleared when she returned penitent and wretched. I refused to receive her, and was resolute in my refusal, till convinced that some act of desperation on her part would be the consequence. Religion and humanity then pleaded for her; and such was her sense of her error, that I found all the comfort I could bestow on her, and all the tenderness I could use, too little. She fell into a deep melancholy, and was perceptibly hastening to her grave.

In hopes of aiding the restoration of her peace by change of life, and by quitting whatever might remind her of our misfortunes, I sold my commission, and bought this house and its little dependencies. I had the comfort of seeing her once more tranquil. The cares of her family, which our narrow circumstances threw entirely on ourselves, occupied her thoughts; and though her contrition never relaxed, and her life was one continued scene of submission and repentance, her gratitude for my conduct dressed her countenance in placid smiles; and while she was sedulously fitting herself for another world, she fulfilled with the utmost diligence her duties in this.

Thus we lived, till about ten years ago, when it pleased Heaven to call its penitent to itself, leaving me, of all our issue, only this daughter surviving. Here have I lived in peace and tranquillity ever since, undisturbed, except by our recent misfortune, the death of a hopeful young man, who had married my daughter, and the almost immediate loss of her child: but Providence fits our minds and our tempers to our trials. The calamities of this world at one time nearly overwhelmed me, because on this world only all my views were fixed; now that they are directed higher, what I meet with here I consider only as the accidents of a journey near its conclusion.

This novel is worthy of a better fate than that of being read and forgotten.

ART. XIV. *Letters on the Confessions of J. J. Rousseau.* By M. Ginguene. Translated from the French. pp. 142. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Jordan. London, 1792.

THESE Letters, written chiefly on the confessions of Rousseau will be acceptable to his admirers. M. Ginguene is an ardent disciple of this eccentric and sublime philosopher; he dwells with enthusiasm on the little yet interesting occurrences of his life; gives an agreeable turn to those which are known, while he frequently has the merit of penetrating into certain

certain transactions which have hitherto appeared enveloped in mystery and in doubt.

This little work persuades us that all the fears and the treacheries, of which Rousseau constantly complained, were not visionary; we believe that they partly existed, and that this great man was the object of despotical persecution only because he endeavoured to recall men (as our author observes) to the enjoyment of their ancient liberty. It is true that the principles of such philosophers have occasioned a revolution fatal to Europe: this is not, however, the crime of the philosophers; it is that of the perverters of philosophy.

Our author, in his third letter, thus notices the two celebrated academical questions which first awakened the dormant genius of Rousseau, and which we give as a fair specimen of the work:

‘ This moment at length arrived; an academical question produced it. *Has the progress of the arts and sciences contributed to corrupt or purify the manners?* After the successive developement of his ideas, and the habitual turn of his reflections, what would be expected to be his answer? Was he free in his choice? Could he not instantly discern, as it were, by a flash of light, the first link of a chain of demonstrations and maxims, which were upon the point of unfolding to him, and by his voice unfolding to the world, the source of their evils—the injustice of their complaints—and by what path they might yet return to happiness?

‘ Yet, notwithstanding this, Diderot has had the impudence to assert, that it was he who dissuaded Jean Jacques from supporting the affirmative of this question, whilst the negative had demonstrably the most intimate connexion with the preceding part of his life, and was but, as it were, the head of which all his following works composed the body and members; and good people, who make pretensions to the title of reasonable persons, believed and repeated this palpable falsity. Let them endeavour to make themselves better acquainted with the eloquent and the sublime person, who was indebted for his sublimity and eloquence to his own internal convictions; let them cease to suppose, or believe, that with the sole talent of writing he had kindled in their hearts a fire, of which his own was but the focus and the centre; and let them possess all the secrets of persuasion, without knowing it; and, if they are not ashamed of being unjust—let them at least blush at appearing ridiculous.

‘ In supporting, on this splendid occasion, an opinion contrary to common ideas, he so followed the natural thread of his own, that they sprung up and assailed him all at once; and, subjugated hereafter by their concentrated force, he was no longer free but to follow their influence. About this time, the place of the cash-keeper to a receiver-general was offered him. But how accommodate the severity of his principles to such a condition? How inculcate, as he had uniformly resolved, independence and poverty, amidst the calculations
of

of interest and financiering speculations? How chain to a money-coffer the author of Fabricius's *Prosopopeia*?—Behold then the coffer refused!—Jean Jacques, free and poor, straining his sentiments to the pitch of his ideas—reforming his habits and his conduct by the model of his opinions—selling his watch, and exclaiming in a transport of joy, Heaven be praised! I shall no longer have occasion to know what o'clock it is; at length, choosing the trade of copyist of music, that he might not be forced to convert into a trade the noble talent of writing.

In the heroic effervescence which possessed his soul, and which kept him at the same point during four or five years—he considered nothing more noble than to imitate the illustrious examples which had been the objects of his infant admiration. Hence his public and declared enmity against the mountebanks and hypocrites of morality—his aversion for every species of subjection, particularly that resulting from obligations—and the resolutions he made, not only against all signal services, but even all those trifling good offices which the majority of persons in the world bestow with so much pomp, or so much awkwardness, for which they generally expect to be loaded with so much acknowledgment. Hence arises that apparent stiffness of character—that Cynic rusticity which suddenly succeeds his native timidity;—and that disposition to sarcasm incessantly excited all that contempt and ridicule which society, in these times of frivolity, corruption, and slavery, necessarily occasions in a person looking down upon it from such an eminence.

Amongst so many men of letters, habituated to preserve for their works the stiffness of their philosophy,—to soften it by their commerce in the world, and, in a great measure, by a conduct analogous to the manners of the times, to ask pardon for what is termed sophistry and paradox in their books—could not he affect to strike with his eccentricity, and play the same character; more particularly, because in his life, and in his writings—he never acted any thing—he disguised nothing—nothing could bias him; and he could not mould and fashion his soul either to feign sentiments he had not, or to varnish those which he possessed in the richest abundance.

The prize obtained by this discourse, rendered the Academy the object of public attention. His eloquence was universally admired, but his opinion passed for a mere *jeu d'esprit*. From that moment they began to criticise what they did not comprehend—pamphlets were written against him, where they, in general, answered every thing but the point in question.—He replied vigorously to M. Gautier, of Nancy, who was scarce worth the trouble, and to M. Borde, who, ten years before, had termed himself his friend, and who so little pardoned his veracity, that ten years afterwards he became one of his violent enemies; and, finally, to the good King Stanislaus, who, with a little assistance from Father Menou, afforded Rousseau the singular satisfaction of refusing, at once, a King and a Jesuit.

But all these criticisms were much more decisively answered by his discourse upon the origin of inequality amongst men—a work, the subject of which the Academy evinced their courage in proposing, but

but wanted the fortitude to adjudge the prize where merited. Here, as his flight was more lofty, fewer were capable of following him. There, describing man leaving his native forests to build towns, and to unite in societies; they accused him with having said, that he must quit his habitation in cities, dissolve civil society, and return again into the woods. From Voltaire's having wrote to him, that, in reading his work, he conceived a desire for walking upon all fours, it was generally received, that Rousseau wished to urge man to walk in this manner; doubtless because he had himself naturally demonstrated, that, in the most savage state, man was necessarily a biped.

You see, then, from his mode of composing this work, the illustration of what he says of his youthful reveries, from which he never swerved, but in having no end fixed; of being the object of a labour, and not of a simple amusement; and, at length, of being written to form works perhaps more eloquent than any that have yet sprung from his pen.

To meditate on this great subject—he neither consults men nor books—he does not shut himself up in the obscure circle of a closet—he is going to plead the cause of Nature—it is for her to inspire him—it is into her bosom that he throws himself—it is to the woods, the first habitation of men, that he repairs to inquire how they came out of them. Retired for a week at St. Germain, he plunges into that ancient and spacious forest: habituated from this moment to concenter—to bound—to command his ideas—he blends the deliberative progress of meditation with the fire of enthusiasm; in those unfrequented paths, among those venerable oaks, which appear contemporaries with the world—he seeks—he finds the image of the primitive times, and boldly traces their history.

‘My soul,’ says he, ‘exalted by these sublime contemplations, approximates to the divinity; and seeing from thence my equals following the blind road of their prejudices—their errors—their miseries—and their crimes—I cry to them with a weak voice, which they will not hear—insensate who are incessantly complaining of nature—learn that all your evils spring from yourselves.’

To these Letters the writer has added copious notes, which have afforded us considerable amusement. We select the following anecdote, which characterises the dispositions of our philosopher and his friends:

‘The letter concludes with a curious anecdote, which I regret not having seen in his Confessions; Rousseau could not have wrote it better, and if he has not availed himself of it, it was only through failure of memory. It would have afforded him an excellent scene, and would not have been one of those discoveries which he laments as being so painful. ‘One would not imagine the scene which caused our rupture,’ continues M. d’Holbach. ‘He dined one day at my house, in company with many men of letters, Diderot, St. Lambert, Marmontel, the Abbé Raynal, and a Rector, who after dinner read us a tragedy of his own composing. It was preceded by a discourse

on theatrical compositions, the substance of which was as follows: He distinguished comedy and tragedy in this manner. 'In comedy,' he said, 'the business is marriage, and in tragedy, murder.' All the plots in both turn upon this peripeteia—shall they marry or not?—shall they kill, or shall they not?—they shall marry—they shall kill. This is the first act.—They shall not marry—they shall not kill. This is the second act.—A new mode of marrying and killing presents itself. This is the third act.—A new difficulty rises, respecting the person they would marry or kill—which constitutes the fourth act.—At length, weary with opposition, marriage or death terminates the piece.—We found this reverie so singular, that it was impossible for us seriously to reply to the questions of the author. I will even confess, that, half laughing, I bantered the poor Rector. All this time Jean Jacques had not uttered a syllable—had not once smiled, nor moved from his arm-chair; at length, he suddenly started up like a mad man, and, darting at the Rector, snatch'd his manuscript; and said to the terrified author, 'Your piece is good for nothing—your discourse ridiculous: all these gentlemen are laughing at you. Get out, and go do your duty in your village.' The Rector then rose with equal rapidity, and poured out every possible invective against this too sincere critic; and from abuse he would have proceeded to blows; and possibly a tragic murder might have ensued, if we had not parted them. Rousseau went out in a rage, which I believed momentary, but which, so far from subsiding, has ever since increased. In vain did Diderot, Grimm, and I, essay to bring him back—he escaped our pursuit. Afterwards happened all those misfortunes in which we had no other share than that of our afflictions—but he considered all as fictitious, and his misfortunes occasioned by us.

'I believe this affliction sincere on the part of M. de Holbach, and am far from thinking that he was either actively or personally concerned in Rousseau's misfortunes: but to form a just judgment of this scene, we should continually keep before our eyes, not only Jean Jacques's eccentric, but his frank and open character, averse to all dissimulation, and consequently to every species of banter, and that impossibility of dissembling a momentary impulse which attended him all his life.—How then did he consider this Rector? As a minister of religion, whom we ought to respect, and who ought to do nothing derogatory from that respect. In what light did he consider these philosophers? As persons equally serious in their deportment as in their writings and discourse, whose very jests and pleasantries ought always to preserve an air of wisdom and decorum. A Rector who does and says extravagant things—Philosophers who encourage him, and by signs, intelligible among themselves, but unintelligible to him, laugh and divert themselves at his folly. Nothing of all this could be agreeable to him. His childish passion is not indeed a trait of politeness, nor what is called knowledge of the world; but what is there in it so very culpable? How true—how just are the ideas it displays? What security could he himself expect hereafter from a society where, at every step, he might fall into similar snarcs? In short, if this

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tragi-comic Rector could suddenly have received the gift of reading hearts, upon whom would he have vented his rage, and committed this *tragic murder*? Upon his too sincere informer, or, his ironical admirers?"

We recommend the perusal of this pamphlet to the admirers of Rousseau, whom it will not fail to interest. The translation, which shews evident marks of haste, is not, however, devoid of spirit.

ART. XV. *A Political and Military Rhapsody on the Invasion and Defence of Great-Britain and Ireland. Illustrated with Three Copper-plates. By the late General Lloyd. To which is annexed, an Introduction, and a short Account of the Author's Life.* pp. 100. 8vo. 7s. 6d. boards. Egerton. London, 1791.

A Pamphlet lately published by M. Dupont, some time president of the National Assembly, in France, has given birth to the republication of General Lloyd's work, and an introduction by the editor. Monsieur, or, as we should now call him, Citizen Dupont, had advised an invasion of Great-Britain, and endeavoured to demonstrate the probability of its success. In answer to this, the editor states, with much apparent accuracy, the resources of the two countries, and adds some very important remarks on the consequence of invasions. But, in this gentleman's enumeration of our resources, he seems entirely to have overlooked events which our wiser neighbours have introduced into the art of war. For while he demonstrates with much accuracy the assistance we might receive from Ireland and Scotland, he never takes into account the uncertain temper of these kingdoms, in case offers should be made them of larger immunities than they enjoy under the British government. We sincerely hope the experiment will not be tried; but it requires no argument to prove how much it must be the interest of England to acquire the affection of these sister kingdoms by every possible indulgence. The other remarks of our author are extremely candid and judicious. Instead of the London train bands and nightly watch, he proposes a substitution of ten thousand periodical militia, by which means the inhabitants of the metropolis would gradually be all acquainted with the use of arms, and inured to manly exercises. In the country he condemns much the narrow policy by which so large a portion of the yeomanry are debarred the privilege of shooting; an amusement which would produce a number of excellent marksmen, easily instructed in the management of musquetry. The natural temper of the people, he adds, makes

more than half of them horsemen; so that all the essentials of the equestrian exercise might be acquired in less than three months, with little trouble or expence.

These, and many other important observations, are succeeded by historical and military remarks on the nature of invasion, in which are pointed out the necessary disadvantages under which an invading army acts, and the fatal consequences that often follow to the invading power. But as the defence of a kingdom is by no means to be slighted, however improbable the success of an invasion may be, we shall extract our author's opinion on a late litigated subject:

' General Lloyd's treatise reflects more light on a late litigated and important topic, the propriety of the fortification system, than all the rhetoric and wrangling of parliament. And as this system still continues to be reprobated by numbers, the public will be enabled from hence to derive much useful information. How far the present system of domestic fortification may be carried to extremes, or may be injudiciously directed, I am ignorant. This I will venture to maintain, that whoever would attempt to persuade us that the external dockyards of Great-Britain, on the channel coast, are sufficiently secure without fortifications, or without fortifications both strong, and, as far as art can operate, impregnable, are liable to the imputation of either a deficiency of judgment or of patriotism. Where nature has left us weak or exposed in any political vital part, there art certainly should be substituted. In our own formation we may draw this principle and instruction from the Divine Architect. The fort now constructing at Gosport is evidently from a hint of G——l L——d: its utility he explains.

' In a word, are those to be considered as the public's friend or foe, who point out to them their vulnerable and crazy parts, or those who would endeavour to lull them into fatal apathy and security? This observation is universal, and is equally applicable to nations and to individuals; to those on land, and to those on sea.'

We will add to our quotation a short account given by Mr. Drummond of the extraordinary author of this rhapsody:

' My first knowledge of General Lloyd was in France, in 1744. He was then, as I understood, a lay brother in some religious house. Mr. Gordon, my tutor, recommended him to my father as a proper person to teach me geography and field engineering; in which line Mr. Lloyd had given specimens of superior talents to some Scotch and Irish officers in the French service. He appeared to be between twenty and thirty years of age, was a Welchman by birth, and said to be of a respectable family; he had received a liberal education, and, although designed for the church, he said he had been some time with a lawyer, before he went to France. His aim then was the army; but having no friend to procure him a commission, he was persuaded by some British priests to take the habit of a novice or monk.

monk. Nevertheless his genius still continued for the military line, and he was engaged to attend my elder brother and myself, who joined the French army under Marshal Saxe in 1745. Mr. L. was with us at the battle of Fontenoy, which I believe was the first actual service he ever saw. My station on that day being a cadet in the corps of engineers, as well as a lieutenant in Lord John Drummond's regiment of royal Scotch, Mons. de Rochauard, the chief engineer (under whom I acted), saw an acuteness in Mr. Lloyd's manner of drawing and making sketches of the ground about the villages of Fontenoy (which was a part of my duty to examine and plan), that he got an order from Marshal Saxe to allow Mr. Lloyd to wear our corps uniform, and to attend me on horseback as an assistant draughtsman, with the pay of a sub-enfign.

When the expedition to Scotland was set on foot, Mr. Lloyd was appointed *third engineer*, with the rank of captain, by a commission from the Pretender. He then went to Nantz, and was with me on board the Elizabeth in the action with the Lion, Captain Sir Piercy Brett, in the Channel: he behaved gallantly, was wounded in the right shoulder, and, after the fight, we went out of the Elizabeth on board a brig, which carried us after the young Chevalier to Scotland, where we attended him till the Prince arrived at Carlisle. Mr. Lloyd was dispatched from thence with letters to our friends in Wales. He did not join us again, but went into South Wales, where he reassumed the character of a priest, and became a spy to look round the coasts of Wales and of the channel, for an expected French fleet. In this tour he examined all the coasts from Milford Haven round the Bristol Channel to Bridgewater and Barnstaple Bay; continuing his survey from thence to Plymouth and Dover, and from the Downs to Margate and London. No man ever was more correct with his eye; he saw at once the advantages and disadvantages of ground; and his remarks were made with so much penetration and judgment, that all his observations were to be depended upon. At length, by some accident, he became suspected, and was taken up in London by a general warrant. When I came to London a prisoner of war in the winter of 1746, after the battle of Culloden, I found my friend Lloyd at Carington's, the messenger, in Jernyn-street, where I, with some of my brother officers, were lodged for safety. I rejoiced to see him; but it was not known that he had been with us in Scotland, otherwise he must have been tried as a rebel, and have suffered as such, his mission, knowledge, and great abilities, having made him a considerable object and character of that time.

In 1747 I got him relieved by means of my relation, a noble duke, and I then employed him under the denomination of a tutor, seeming never to have known him before. In the same year he went with me to France, and followed me to the siege of Bergen-op Zoom, where he became in high esteem with Marshal Lovendhall. During that siege he obtained the rank of *major*, and was of infinite service in mounting batteries, in choosing ground and exploring mines, as well as in opening of sluices. When I went to Spain in 1748, my father recommended Major Lloyd to the Earl Marshal, who was at

that time in great reputation with the King of Prussia. This nobleman recommended Lloyd to his brother, Marshal Keith; and when I returned from my Spanish voyage and survey of the coast of Terra Firma in 1754, I met with him in Paris; at which time there being a plan laid for an invasion of England, Lloyd was recommended to the Marshal Duc de Bellisle, then minister of war, who had also appointed me to come to England as commissary-general, to superintend all the French prisoners taken before the formal declaration of war in 1756. Lloyd's former knowledge of the British coast, the exactness of his descriptions, and his genius as a spy, afforded him great advantages on this occasion; in consequence of which he resigned his Prussian rank, accepted a new field officer's commission in the French service, with an appointment of five louis *per diem*, to re-survey the British coast, and to report thereon to the Duc de Bellisle. He accordingly came to England in 1756, re-assumed the habit *Bourgeois*, and having nothing of a military look, he went where he pleased, as a trader or rider. Thus he re-examined the British coast, and laid the foundation of his much esteemed treatise upon the natural strength of Britain; pointing out all that could be done by invasion, and all that might be done by defence. His report, however, made the French ministry change their intentions of invading Britain; and the Marechal Duc de Bellisle was better pleased at being sent to Minorca, than to attempt a landing at Torbay.

Lloyd then quitted England and went to Germany, where he was employed some years in the Russian and Austrian service; and promoted to higher rank. From my remaining in Great-Britain after 1756, and quitting the army, as well as going to the West-Indies in 1758, I lost my friend till about 1776, when I again met with him in London under the title of General Lloyd. He then told me that he had made his peace here, and afterwards informed me that he had obtained a pension upon the Chelsea establishment.

General Lloyd's work begins by a view of the politics of France during the two last centuries. This is given with equal brevity and historical exactness. He next attempts a statement of the force of nations, particularly France, Spain, and Great-Britain. The difficulties that attend this are obvious; and we can only say, the author has done the best that could be expected with so few data. His next chapter, on the analogy between the form of government and the state of war, is extremely judicious; and events that have happened since the writer's time, amply justify most of his conclusions. The invasion of Great-Britain, at that time expected, is next examined, with the difficulties the French would have to encounter, and the advantages on the side of Great-Britain. In discussing these subjects, the author shews a strength of mind and knowledge of contingent events, we could hardly expect from any individual, however extensive his information might be. The result is, that, with proper management, an enemy landing on the western

Western coast of England might easily be prevented marching more than forty miles into the country, from its inclosed state, and the numerous defiles formed by hills and rivers.

The next chapter is on the method of ranging the troops, and making war, with additional details of the invaders difficulties. Here the author proposes the infantry to be ranged four instead of three deep, and that the fourth rank should be armed with a pike eleven or twelve feet long, two feet of which should be made of steel two inches broad, to cut on each side, without any hatchet or cross-bar, that it may easily pass through the hedges. It is almost needless to add, that this fourth rank must be composed of the tallest and strongest men. That this would strengthen the columns cannot be doubted, provided a pike of this length is manageable. On the order of battle Mr. Lloyd has suggested some very important hints, as well as on the general method of making war. In the latter he censures very much the custom of so large a number of light troops preceding the main body, and conceives a few hundred men would answer the purpose much better; or, if the usual number are employed, he wonders much why they should not, instead of quitting the field as soon as the enemy are put in motion, form on the right and left, at a convenient distance, and attack the enemy in flank. His other observations on this subject are extremely ingenious; but as they could only be interesting, not to say intelligible, to professional readers, we must refer such to the work itself.

The editor, whom we mentioned as the writer of the introduction, now offers a conclusion from the premises of General Lloyd. This contains many political observations, connected indeed with the military defence of the island. What he chiefly insists on is, the necessity of an increased population of the western part, as a source of immediate and constant defence. The sources of population he justly considers to be agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and fisheries: on each of which sciences he proposes a lecturer should be established at our universities. As another means of population, the writer conceives our ancestors attached certain privileges to particular spots, which, from their being the most vulnerable, they wished should be best inhabited. Hence he supposes the numerous boroughs in the western part of the island;—instead of destroying which, he proposes to colonise them afresh; a plan which, he asserts, would be equally advantageous to the proprietors and the nation at large. But this reasoning, if admitted, would only convince us how impossible it is for one age to legislate for another. The western coast was probably, from a variety of causes, best and earliest inhabited, and consequently had the

clearest

clearest title to send representatives to parliament. But the manner in which this was arranged, has gradually completed the depopulation of one part, and annihilated the representation of the other. Where the privilege of citizenship was extended to every householder the proprietors have gradually lessened the number of houses, that the borough may be more completely in their own hands; where the privilege has been more confined, it has been gradually so lessened, as at length to prove nugatory, or even dangerous. The same difficulties would occur to the system of colonisation proposed by the author, which, in our opinion, could be only achieved by withdrawing this privilege where the electors do not amount to a given number. By such a law the proprietors would be forced to concur in a plan so highly important to the interest of the country, and perhaps the existence of the constitution.

Though the title-page includes Ireland with England, the editor's only observation with regard to Ireland is, that he could wish some one, better acquainted with the subject than himself, would undertake such a survey. We can only add, that we wish it may be performed with equal accuracy, and liable to as few objections as the present work.

ART. XVI. *Letter addressed to the Addressers on the late Proclamation.* By Thomas Paine. 8vo. 1s. 6d. 12mo. 4d. Symonds. London, 1792.

ECCE iterum Crispinus! Here again, gentle reader, is Thomas Paine; we never meet with him but his appearance reminds us of a tinker in a country town bawling out for decayed pots and kettles to repair. His constant cry is, 'Have you any governments to mend?' This great political master tinker, who is followed by a numerous herd of journeymen and apprentices, is particularly anxious to get the English constitution into his hands; and, like a workman that understands the craft, and wishes to make a good job of it, he is at great pains to persuade us that it is in a most deplorable condition, and if he does not obtain a discretionary power to do with it what he will, it will in a very short time be entirely useless, and not only useless, but dangerous to the safety and liberty of every man in England. We, for our parts, are not afraid; we can hear Mr. Paine without terror. The English constitution has, during hundreds of years, withstood many a hostile attempt from the battery of tyrannical invasion, and from the subtle mines dug by the hands of craft and simulation, and yet it still remains uninjured; would it not be strange indeed if the whole fabric should

should at last fall to the ground by the *puny efforts of an excise-man*? Surely if an obscure individual can destroy the work of ages, which the most eminent men that England produced from century to century toiled at with incessant labour, and combined the utmost exertions of their united wisdom to render it beautiful, strong, and durable, it is not worth an anxious thought, and deserves not a single tear to mourn its downfall. But we have a higher opinion of the excellence of its materials, and of the skill with which it is compacted. While, therefore, many of its friends betray a despondency that is exceedingly indecorous, we see no serious cause of alarm, and frankly declare it as our opinion, that *de republica non desperandum*.

The present production of Mr. Paine is a letter to the persons who addressed his majesty on the late proclamation, and runs in the same style and strain as the Rights of Man. As method does not constitute one of its excellencies, it is difficult to present an abstract. He endeavours to turn the parliamentary proceeding into ridicule; and boldly defends his publications against the accusations of the legislature. He seems to be troubled with a peculiar kind of *mania*, which is always discovered whenever the English constitution comes in his way, and shews itself in violent abuse. As we think his reveries perfectly harmless, and are assured that every one of its friends carries an antidote in his bosom, we shall insert a specimen of them for the amusement of our readers:

‘ It [meaning the English constitution] is a good constitution for courtiers, placemen, pensioners, borough-holders, and the leaders of parties; and these are the men that have been the active leaders of addresses; but it is a bad constitution for at least ninety-nine parts of the nation out of an hundred; and this truth is every day making its way.

‘ It is bad, first, because it entails upon the nation the unnecessary expence of supporting three forms and systems of government at once; namely, the monarchical, the aristocratical, and the democratical.

‘ Secondly, because it is impossible to unite such a discordant composition by any other means than perpetual corruption; and therefore the corruption so loudly and so universally complained of, is no other than the natural consequence of such an unnatural compound of governments; and in this consists that excellence which the numerous herd of placemen and pensioners so loudly extol, and which, at the same time, occasions that enormous load of taxes under which the rest of the nation groans.

‘ But I will go farther, and shew, that were government now to begin in England, the people could not be brought to establish the same system they now submit to. Let us suppose that government was now to begin, and that the plan of government offered to the nation

nation for its approbation or rejection consisted of the following parts:

First, that some one individual should be taken from all the rest of the nation, and to whom all the rest should swear obedience, and never be permitted to sit down in his presence, and that they should give to him one million sterling a year—that the nation should never after have power or authority to make laws but with his express consent; and that his sons, and his sons' sons, whether wise or foolish, good men or bad, fit or unfit, should have the same power, and also the same money annually paid to them for ever.

Secondly, that there should be two houses of legislators to assist in making laws, one of which should, in the first instance, be entirely appointed by the foresaid person; and that their sons, and their sons' sons, whether wise or foolish, good men or bad, fit or unfit, should for ever after be hereditary legislators.

Thirdly, that the other house should be chosen in the same manner as the house, now called the House of Commons, is chosen, and should be subject to the control of the two foresaid hereditary houses in all things.

It would be impossible to cram such a farrago of imposition and absurdity down the throat of this or any other nation that were capable of reasoning upon its rights and its interest.

They would ask, in the first place, on what ground of right, or on what principles, such irrational and preposterous distinctions could or ought to be made; and what pretensions any man could make, or what services he could render, to entitle him to a million a year. They would go farther, and revolt at the idea of consigning their children, and their children's children, to the domination of persons hereafter to be born, who might, for any thing they could foresee, turn out to be knaves or fools; and they would finally discover that the project of hereditary governors and legislators was a *treasonable usurpation over the rights of posterity*. Not only the calm dictates of reason, and the force of natural affection, but the integrity of manly pride, would impel man to spurn at such proposals.

From the grosser absurdities of such a scheme, they would extend their examination to the practical defects—they would soon see that it would end in tyranny, accomplished by fraud. That in the operation of it there would be two to one against them, because the two parts that were to be made hereditary would form a common interest, and stick to each other; and that themselves and their representatives would become no better than hewers of wood and drawers of water for the other parts of the government. Yet call one of those powers King, the other Lords, and the third the Commons, and it gives the model of what is called the English-government.

Mr. Paine gives us the history, cause, and articles of his prosecution, and makes some remarks on the origin and mode of appointing special juries. More than 32,000 of the Rights of Man, he tells us, were sold within the space of a month since the proclamation; and he boasts that more copies of his book

have been sold in one month, than all the exertions of government have been able to procure signatures to addresses in three. Poor Mr. Burke comes in for one or two severe blows more. The friends of the people are not forgotten. He still cries out loudly for a change; a *reform* will not satisfy Thomas Paine. Parliament, it seems, is not competent to the work, and we must have a *national convention* to do the business, and regenerate Great-Britain. What kind of creature this convention is to be, many of our readers will be curious to know. Here it is:

‘Instead of referring to rotten boroughs and absurd corporations for addresses, or hawking them about the country to be signed by a few dependent tenants, the real and effectual mode would be to come at once to the point, and to ascertain the sense of the nation by electing a national convention.

‘The plan and organisation of a convention is easy in practice. In the first place, the number of inhabitants in England can be sufficiently enough known from the number of houses assessed to the house and window lights tax in each county. This will give the rule for apportioning the number of members to be elected to the national convention in each of the counties. If the total number of inhabitants in England be seven millions, and the total number of members to be elected to the convention be *one thousand*, the number of members to be elected in a county containing one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants will be *twenty-one*, and in like proportion for every other county.—As every man in the nation of the age of twenty-one years pays taxes, either out of the property that he possesses, or out of the product of his labour, which is property to him, and is amenable in his own person to every law of the land; so has every one the same equal right to vote, and no one part of a nation, nor any individual, has a right to dispute the right of another. A county might be apportioned into convenient districts; and when this is done, each district might, according to its number of inhabitants, elect its quota of county members to the national convention; and the vote of each elector might be taken in the parish where he resided, either by ballot or by voice, as he should choose to give it. A national convention thus formed would bring together the sense and opinions of every part of the nation, fairly taken. The science of government and the interest of the public, and of the several parts thereof, would then undergo an ample and rational discussion, freed from the language of parliamentary disguise.’

This man of all work in the department of government proposes a reform in regard to the laws of England, which, if it could be brought about, would meet with pretty general approbation:

‘The body of what is called law is spread over a space of several hundred years, comprehending laws obsolete, laws repugnant, laws ridiculous, and every other kind of laws forgotten or remembered; and what renders the case still worse is, that the confusion multiplies
with

with the progress of time. To bring this misshapen monster into form, and to prevent its lapsing again into a wildness state, only two things, and those very simple, are necessary.

‘The first is to review the whole mass of laws, and to bring forward only such as are worth retaining, and let all the rest drop; and to give to the laws so brought forward a new era, commencing from the time of such reform.

‘Secondly, that at the expiration of every twenty-one years (or any other stated period) a like review shall again be taken, and the laws found proper to be retained be again carried forward, commencing with that date, and the useless laws dropt and discontinued.’

From these quotations a tolerably exact idea may be formed of this strange performance. That Thomas Paine has uncommon talents, none who read his works with impartiality will doubt. Whether he has employed them properly, is another question. We wish gentlemen who are, as the Roman authors express it, *cupidi rerum novarum*, to reflect that it is easy to form plans on paper, but extremely difficult to reduce them to practice; and that many plausible theories constructed by philosophers in their closets, and fondly embraced by them as containing the essence of human wisdom, are only fit for the fairy land of Utopia, and by no means calculated for the situation and necessities of mankind in common life.

ART. XVII. *A Survey of the Russian Empire, according to its present newly-regulated State, divided into different Governments; shewing their Situations and Boundaries; the Capital and district Towns of each Government; Manners and Religion of the various Nations that compose that extensive Empire; Seas, Lakes, and Rivers; Climates, Commerce, Agriculture, and Manufactures; Population and Revenues; Mountains, Minerals, Metals, and other natural Productions. The whole illustrated with a correct Map of Russia, and an Engraving, exhibiting the Arms and Uniforms of the several Governments of that Empire. By Captain Lorgey Plescheef. The Third Edition, published at St. Petersburg. Translated from the Russian, with considerable Additions, by James Smirnov, Chaplain to the Legation of her Imperial Majesty of all the Russias at the Court of Great-Britain. pp. 381. 8vo. 6s. Debrett. London, 1792.*

THIS work, it appears by a dedication prefixed, was undertaken in obedience to the will of her Imperial Highness the Grand Duchess, Mary Theodorouna, and in conformity to a plan prescribed by her. Mr. Smirnov translated it for the use of his family, finding no books in the English language that gave

gave any satisfactory account of Russia. With a modesty becoming a foreigner, he prevailed on two English gentlemen to correct the language, one of whom advised him to publish the work as a desideratum in the English tongue. For this the public is certainly indebted to Mr. Smirnov; and, had his friends done him justice, they would have been still more obliged. But, among many other awkward expressions, we were the most startled at *gallanterie goods*, which are mentioned among the products of Russia exported into the different European kingdoms. These objections are, however, trifling compared with the utility of such a performance, which gives a succinct view of that vast empire in so short a compass. It may readily be conceived, that the uncultivated state of many parts of Russia, particularly as to the manners of the inhabitants, would render a circumstantial detail extremely difficult, and often uninteresting. But a general account of its division into governments, the productions, boundaries, and commercial intercourse of each, cannot but be a desirable present to the merchant, the philosopher, the geographer, and the politician.

The work is divided into two parts. The first may be called the simple or natural description of Russia; the second, its artificial or political arrangement. In the first, besides the account of the boundaries (if such a word may be admitted) of the Russian empire, its natural production and commerce, we have also a kind of *географическое*, or description of the mountains, &c. within, and on the frontiers of Russia, their situation, origin, and the rivers that derive their source from them—the seas forming the boundaries of the empire, and the principal lakes within it—the navigable rivers, their source and *emboucheurs*—the various nations inhabiting Russia, whether aborigines or colonists. This part of the work is illustrated by a very useful map, which we could wish had been on a larger scale.

The second part divides the empire into the northern, middle, and southern region. These regions are subdivided into different governments—the northern into that of St. Petersburg and 154 others—the middle into Moscow and as many more—the southern into Kiev and four others. The description of these is very short, containing little more than the names of the principal places contained within each government, the general state of population, soil, ecclesiastical establishment, and, where there are any, the manufactures. This part of the work is accompanied with a chart exhibiting the arms and uniforms of the different governments.

The author observes, that, according to the last revision, the population of Russia amounts to twenty-six million; but in this calculation are not included the nobility, clergy, sea and land

land forces, servants belonging to the court, and employed under government in civil and other offices; the students of the different universities, academies, seminaries, and other schools; likewise all the irregular troops, the roving hordes of different tribes, foreigners and colonists, or settlers of different nations. With the addition of these, the population of Russia is supposed to amount to about thirty millions. When one considers that this immense empire occupies more than a seventh part of the known continent, and a twenty-sixth part of the whole globe; that from east to west it extends from 39 to 207 degrees of longitude, exclusive of the islands, and from north to south reaches from 78 to 50½ degree of latitude, a space considerably larger than all Europe; we shall reflect with astonishment that the population does not exceed that of France. If, therefore, the strength of a nation depends on its numbers, and its wealth on the freedom of its inhabitants, we must not be surprised if hereafter France should be found more than a match for Russia, even if that immense empire should not crumble to pieces from its own extent, and the want of connexion between its various parts.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XVIII. *L'Ami des Loix. Par le Citoyen Laya, Auteur des Dangers de l'Opinion et de Jean Calas. 8vo.*

HOWEVER justly dramatic writers may have obtained applause for correcting the vices and follies of individuals, they have seldom laid claim to the higher praise of combating national vices, and detecting the delusions of popular inclinations. Their task has been, on the contrary, to discover the reigning passion of the multitude with regard to public matters, and not to moderate and enlighten, but to flatter and inflame it. Hence it is that we may observe on the stage the grossest of national and religious prejudices nourished by a partial and unjust distribution of characters. Hence have the people been roused to sedition, or lulled into passive obedience, as suited the purpose of the moment; and, what is still more lamentable, the lower classes, who are always the victims of war, have been led to support the most unjust quarrels, not only through the dignified pretence of maintaining their country's glory, but by the *very honorable* incentives of plunder and rapine. The stage has been likened to a mirror; but that mirror ought surely to be so placed as to reflect to the beholder objects
neither

neither well-proportioned nor amiable, whenever he recedes from, or advances beyond, the strict line of justice and virtue. The perusal of the piece in question has convinced us, that it is not requiring too much to expect that he should oppose the ill-directed current of popular opinion, even when it is most violent; since, in times of the greatest corruption, truth will find powerful and numerous supporters. It were needless to detail the plot of *L'Ami des Loix*, since M. Laya has bestowed very little pains on that part of his subject; but we must admire his courage in delineating before a Parisian audience such characters as those of an honest and amiable aristocrate; of a moderate man who does not betray his country; and of a furious demagogue, who, notwithstanding his pretences to extraordinary patriotism, is shown to be actuated by the basest and worst motives; who persecutes and seeks to destroy the most virtuous men with false accusations of treason and conspiracy, in a manner that can only be justified by the infernal system of atheism, which he embraces. The surprising run of this play, notwithstanding the interested opposition of the bad men whom it unmasks, proves the justice of the portraits it contains, at the same time that it exculpates the great body of the French people from the imputation of approving those enormities which have been lately perpetrated. A few detached passages, however hastily translated, may not prove unacceptable to the English reader; as such we offer him the following:

‘ Yes, every one is occupied with tracing out plans for the republic. One, with narrow views and a circumscribed understanding, would confine France within the walls of Paris. Another, more decisive and extensive in his designs, would have France to reign over all Europe. Another, dividing the cantons into thirty petty states, calls out for thirty kings, alledging *admirable* reasons; whilst all of them, making a mockery of manners, with an ostentation of science, seek to regenerate every thing but their own consciences.’

VERSAC, Scene I. ACT I.

‘ No, I abjure our laurels, if they must be stained with blood. If I am an aristocrate, since every noble is so deemed, be it so; but I am still an honest man. I cannot, it is true, reconcile myself to your *equality*; but I love my country, and have not quitted it. And if I must frankly tell you my opinion of all our emigrants, my heart disapproves them. But as they are in their souls, as well as myself, French gentlemen, I may, without aiding them, look forward to their success.’—VERSAC, *ibid.*

‘ *Plauds.* Here is my new dissertation. This, I venture to think, will have some influence, and must, for its great benefit, turn France topsy turvey.

‘ *Forlis.*

‘ *Forlis.* For its great benefit !

‘ *Plaude.* Yes, Sir. In two words, this is the case ; I ascend to the source of our evils. There is but one.

‘ *Forlis.* Good.

‘ *Plaude.* One only ; that’s clear ; and it is—the right of property.

‘ *Forlis.* I should never have guessed it.

‘ *Plaude.* From property flow a long train of vices, horrors, and, in short, gentlemen, every scourge. Without property there would be no thieves ; and therefore no punishments. The consequence is obvious. No misers where property was not to be acquired ; no intriguers, as employment would not be sought after ; no libertines, for every woman being fairly accessible to every one, would belong to no one ; no gamblers ; for my plan would demolish all makers of cards and dice. Now I affirm, that if evil arises from what we possess, the sure remedy is no longer to possess any thing. As for walls, doors, and bolts, all these we may break open ; for having proceeded thus far, we have no more occasion for them. Property was only a factitious good ; and besides, as soon as you permit a rich man, you give birth to a poor man. In your republic a poor wretch stupidly begs of the rich. What an abuse ! In mine, the poor takes from the rich. Every thing is in common ; theft is no longer theft ; it is *equality* ; and I thus abolish virtue the better to destroy vice.’

Scene III. Act III.

‘ *Forlis.* You go too far to seek for our true enemies, if you look for them beyond our frontiers. No ; they *love us too well* to quit us. Those prudent enemies are near us ; are *here* ! They are those jugglers, those patriotic candidates for places, who in their grimaces affect so much civism ; those preachers of equality, who are puffed up with ambition, the false adorers of liberty, whose devotion is a plastered outside, and in reality pure hypocrisy. Those honest and frank citizens, whose apostatising souls, in order to make the fairest gift of heaven odious, represent liberty to be as sanguinary as themselves. But no ! that liberty which is not to be recognised among them, has imprinted in our hearts her imperishable throne. May all these quacks and popular thieves, these insolent braggadocios of patriotism, purge this enfranchised land of their faces. War, eternal war, be to the promoters of anarchy. Tyrannical royalists, and tyrannical republicans, bow before the laws : these are our sovereigns. Ashamed of what you have been, and more of what you are, ravishers, the shadow is passed by ; think of vanishing.’

FORLIS, Scene III. of Act III.

In

In act 4th, scene the first, Nomophage, who is a complete villain, in order to urge on Filto, who is less hardened, displays his theory of the eternity of matter, and of the total indifference of moral good and evil; to which Filto replies,

‘ You do well to generalise thus in your frightful systems, which confound cause and effect, extreme good and evil. A man who is occupied with the whole of a great object, easily wanders from the detail, and dispenses with all feeling. Thus then, there are no virtues; for such is the result. He who wishes to practise them, admits their existence. The good man never descends into his heart without prostrating himself at the feet of his Creator. He pursues the universal chain, which descends from that being, only the better to admire the eternal wisdom, the immutable harmony, order, and equity, which regulate the immensity of these great springs; and from the perfections of that supreme order, he infers the duty of virtue in himself; but the vicious man, adverse to good, sees vice prevailing every where as it is in himself; or rather his reflections, while he feels their fallacy, blaspheme nature, to stifle his remorse.’

Forlis, who is an advocate for the revolution, though a moderate man, when he hears that his house has been plundered and demolished, and that the misfed mob are coming to immolate him to their unjust suspicions, expresses himself thus:

‘ Men infatuated in their obstinacy, too often spoil every thing; but what is right will remain right, whatever may be attempted. Reason consoles me for the blow which reaches myself alone; and I sacrifice my own interest willingly to that of the community. But I will not confound what is good with what is an excess; nor accuse that good from whence the excess flows: or, like you, embracing the contrary extreme, condemn those laws which I approved, and which remain the same. No: robbers with sword and flames may menace my house and my person; but neither robbers, nor sword, nor flames, shall make me forget what is right. I will die as I have lived, exempt from fear, faithful to my reason, constant in my principles, and always myself.’

These sketches may serve to characterise a work which has obtained extraordinary applause, and which abounds more in force of sentiment than in elegant refinement of language. As it tends to develop the present state of the distracted capital of France, we should not be displeased to see it in an English dress.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For FEBRUARY 1793.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 19. *Solyman and Fatima; or, The Sceptic convinced. An Eastern Tale.* By T. Wright. pp. 310. 8vo. 5s. Bew. London, 1791.

ORIENTAL fictions were once a favourite species of composition. Encouraged by the success of Johnson's *Rasselas*; the *Almorán* and *Hamet of Hawkefworth*, and the *Solyman* and *Atmena* of Langhorne, appeared. If they pleased, they pleased but for 'a little hour.' The first was found uninteresting, and the other trifling. Their model, indeed, displayed such marvellous eminence, that we wonder Hawkefworth and Langhorne ventured to wrestle with such a rival.

If such writers have failed in this department of literature, it will not be considered as detracting from Mr. Wright's merit to acknowledge that, in this respect, he resembles his masters. We lament that he has chosen an unfortunate subject; and in truth, though this tale pretends to be of eastern origin, it does not display those characteristic features which are so requisite to distinguish it. We confess that the moral is unexceptionable, and the style very superior to the novels of the day.

ART. 20. *The Doubtful Marriage; a Narrative drawn from Characters in real Life.* pp. 693. 12mo. 3 vols. 9s. sewed. Law. London, 1792.

If novel writers would attend to those incidents with which the varied scene of human life would amply furnish them, they would deserve and obtain more applause than by filling their productions with events that, altering somewhat a line from Pope, *never were, nor are, nor e'er shall be.* The narrative before us, which we believe to have been drawn from characters in real life, contains the history of a very worthy clergyman, persecuted even unto death, by several diocesan, on account of his marriage with a lady who had been previously married to another gentleman at Gretna Green. The Rev. Mr. Jackson (the name of the clergyman) discovered, after very accurate investigation, that the first marriage was neither conformable to divine nor human laws; the gentleman marrying in a fictitious name, and no evidence, written or oral, being able to be produced of the transaction. Mr. Jackson accordingly conceived the marriage to be null and void, and married the lady, according to the forms of the Church of England. His diocesan, however (who is stated to be the worthy Dr. Louth, the late Bishop of London), being informed of his marriage, summoned Mr. Jackson before him, and suspended him from performing the duties

duties of his sacred office, alledging that the first marriage ought to have been declared void in the court of the metropolitan before the second took place. On account of this suspension Mr. Jackson undergoes a variety of misfortunes that end only with his life. This narrative is peculiarly interesting, more peculiarly so on account of its apparent veracity.

ART. 21. *Sedition; an Ode. Oscenioned by his Majesty's late Proclamation. Dedicated, by Permission, to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. By J. Delap, D.D.* pp. 7. 4to. 6d. Lee; Lewes. 1792.

This ode, which we believe may contain sixty lines, written probably in less than sixteen minutes, consists of excellent loyalty, but indifferent poetry, when it is considered to come from Dr. Delap, or any doctor. Listen to our bard:

' But while SEDITION's lawless rout
Confusion, worse confounded, spread,
Sudden, with universal shout,
A ROYAL PROCLAMATION's read;

Whose every word on peril's brink,
Makes their whole baseless fabric shrink;
Their trains unfold, and wily arts,

CLUBS, here, and COMBINATIONS foul in foreign parts.'

Was it worth while to present the Prince with such verses? We are afraid this is not the mode of engaging him to become a patron of the muses.

ART. 22. *Somerſet; or, The Dangers of Greatneſs. A Tale, founded upon hiſtoric Truths.* pp. 339. 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. ſewed. Lane. London, 1792.

The author ingenuouſly confeſſes in the preface that he aims not at novelty. Indeed he aſſerts, that 'to invent any thing entirely new, is now become almoſt an utter impoſſibility. The rapidity with which literature has *increaſed itſelf* for theſe two laſt centuries, and the voluminous authors in every department, have ſwallowed up every paſſage to novelty.'—We will not enter into a diſcuſſion of this aſſertion at preſent—ſuffice it to ſay, that we do not coincide in opinion with the author. As all our readers are acquainted with the hiſtory of *Somerſet*, we need ſay no more than that there are ſome agreeable epiſodes interwoven with the main plot, which attach an additional degree of intereſt to the whole.

ART. 23. *Anna Melvil; a Novel.* pp. 427. 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. ſewed. Lane. London, 1792.

He is not entitled to a ſmall degree of praiſe who, in the beaten path of literature, opens to the view of the beholder a perſpective hitherto unſeen or little noticed. Such praiſe belongs to the author of the

the novel before us, which contains incidents perfectly new. As a proof, we refer our readers to the story of Sir William Fenton, very artfully and interestingly conducted—to the life and death of Lord Desmond—and to the conduct of Mrs. Roscommon. We could have wished that the language had been a little more correct.

ART. 24. *The Peaceful Villa; an eventful Tale.* pp. 434. 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. sewed. Sael. London, 1793.

This is a novel neither above nor below mediocrity. It is unnecessary therefore to enter into any analysis of it.

ART. 25. *Short Remarks on the Situation of the French Refugees; submitted to the Attention of the Minister.* pp. 31. 8vo. 1s. Debrete. London, 1792.

The remarks of the author, who signs himself *Civis*, are acute; but we cannot agree with him in opinion, that, 'as a nation, we shall not be secure till we purge the kingdom of them all,' viz. the French refugees.

ART. 26. *An Account of the Manner in which the Persons confined in the Prisons of Paris were tried and put to Death on the 2d and 3d of September last. By an Eye Witness.* pp. 36. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1792.

We entertain some doubts of the veracity of this account; and were we to express our real sentiments, we should say, that it seems to us to have been written by *no eye witness* of the transactions. Should the account, however, be strictly true, it cannot operate against the principles of the French revolution.

ART. 27. *Innovation; a Poem. Addressed to the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, by George Lethbriul'ier Schoen, Esq. Barrister at Law.* pp. 28. 4to. 2s. Stockdale. London, 1793.

Mr. Schoen's poetical abilities are by no means *mediocre*. We could have wished, however, that they had been exerted in attempting to modify that revolution in France which he anathematizes in such harsh terms. We wish not to believe it to be true, as Mr. Schoen asserts, that Paris is the

——— 'Fall'n city, where unhallow'd rage
Strikes at the hoary scalp of helpless age;
Where infants, smiling on the murderer's knife,
Pay the presumptuous smile with dawning life.'

ART. 28. *Virginus and Virginia; a Poem, in Six Parts, from the Roman History. By Mrs. Gunning. Dedicated to supreme Fashion, but not by Permission.* pp. 65. 4to. 5s. Lane. London. No Date.

All our readers are acquainted with the story of Virginus and Virginia. The subject afforded ample room for the exercise of the powers of the poet. We are sorry, however, to say that the muses seem not to have inspired Mrs. Gunning. The story is ill told—the language by no means poetic, and the thoughts often puerile. We enter into no particular analysis of the poem.

ART.

ART. 29. *The Female Geniad; a Poem. By Elizabeth Ogilvy Benger, of Portsmouth, at the Age of Thirteen.* pp. 55. 4to. 2s. 6d. Hookham. London, 1791.

Miss Benger must forgive us if we are rather incredulous with respect to her age. We will not positively assert that more than thirteen years have passed over her head—such an assertion would be treason to politeness—we only suggest doubts resulting from the perusal of her poem, which is conducted with some skill and art, and in which we have observed no grammatical defects. The lines are harmonious, and the language tolerably poetic.

ART. 30. *An impartial Sketch of the Life of Thomas Paine, Author of the Rights of Man. To which is added, his Letters to the Marquis of Lansdowne, the Abbé Syeyes, &c.* pp. 48. 8vo. 1s. T. Browne, Drury-Lane. 1792.

We cannot help thinking that the best way of dealing with Thomas Paine would have been to let him alone. Not one in ten who have now read his books, would in that case have given themselves the trouble to peruse them; and not one in an hundred who are now anxious to know his sentiments would ever have heard that there was such a man on the face of the earth. Here is a short account of his life, which appears to be written with impartiality; it contains neither panegyric nor invective.

Mr. Paine was born at Thetford in Norfolk, in 1737. His father was a quaker by profession, a staymaker by trade; his mother, the daughter of an attorney in the town, was a member of the Church of England. He received his education at the grammar-school of Thetford, under the Rev. Mr. Knowles, and discovered considerable abilities. In his fourteenth year he began to learn his father's trade, and remained with him about five years; he then went to London, and worked with a noted staymaker there. Soon after he went to sea in a privateer, but did not continue long, for in a very short time we find him making stays at Dover. From Dover he removed to Sandwich, set up in his business, and married the daughter of an exciseman; but soon lost his wife, and returned to London. He then became an exciseman; afterwards an usher of a school in London. We next find him again in the excise, at Lewes, where he married his landlord's daughter, and set up in the grocery business; but he failed in trade, was put out of the excise, and parted with his wife. Being recommended to Dr. Franklin, he went over to America in the end of 1774. His first employment there was as shopman to a book-seller in Philadelphia. He then became a chemist; he was in the American army with Washington, when it retreated from Hudson's River to the Delaware. Some time afterwards he was appointed secretary to the foreign department; and, at the end of the war, he received, by way of acknowledgment for his services, gratuities both in money and in land, from different states in the republic. He went from America to France in 1786, and came over to England in 1787, with the model of an iron bridge. The manner in which his time has since been spent, is better known. He has, unsolicited by the

powers that be, applied himself to the craft of government-mender in England; and is now employed as constitution-maker in France. Such has been the chequered life of Thomas Paine. Few individuals; so obscure in their origin and employment, have engaged to considerable a degree of the notice of mankind.

ART. 31. *A plain Address to the Common Sense of the People of England; containing an increasing Abstract of Paine's Life and Writings. By J. Gifford, Esq. Author of the History of France, New History of England, &c.* pp. 60. 8vo. 6d. sewed. C. Lowndes. London, 1792.

'Squire Gifford assures us, in his preface, that he writes 'neither for fame nor for profit;' yet in his title-page he informs us that he is the author of the histories of France and England! We wonder, therefore, for what purpose the squire writes. We like his loyalty, and sometimes his style. Parts of this pamphlet are not ill written, while others betray the haste with which they appear to have been composed. His zeal has hurried him into intemperate expressions, which we cannot excuse, even for their loyalty. In quoting several writers to support his opinions (and amongst whom are St. Paul and St. Peter), he says, p. 48, 'But these writers were only inspired by God; whereas Thomas Paine and his Jacobines seem to have been inspired by a power that has much greater influence in France—the DEVIL.' We are sorry that our ingenious writer should not have perceived that not only this is empty declamation, but a style unworthy of the cause of truth, and inimical to that of taste.

MEDICAL.

ART. 32. *A new Collection of Medical Prescriptions, distributed into Twelve Classes, and accompanied with pharmaceutical and practical Remarks; exhibiting a View of the present State of the Materia Medica and Practice of Physic, both at Home and abroad. By a Member of the London College of Physicians.* pp. 322. 12mo. 4s. boards. Baldwin. London, 1791.

This collection has been formed with the view of refreshing the memory, and directing the judgment of the young practitioner. The medicines are comprised under twelve heads, without any subdivisions, except in the first and second classes; and remarks, where they seemed to be necessary, are subjoined to the formulæ. It was the wish of the collector that these had been entirely modelled after the new Pharmacopœia of the London College; but he found that an adherence to that plan would occasion too many alterations in the original prescriptions. The collection is numerous, and may doubtless prove useful, if the medicines be properly applied.

ART. 33. *A Treatise on the Regular, Irregular, Atonic, and Flying Gout; containing many new Reflections on its Causes, and Management under various Circumstances and Constitutions. With the excellent Effects of the Muriatic Acid in the Relief of that Disorder.* By William Rowley,

Rowley, M. D. Member of the University of Oxford, the Royal College of Physicians in London, and Physician to the St. Mary-le-Bone Infirmary, &c. pp. 98. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wingrave. London, 1792.

With many ingenious and plausible reflections, this treatise contains an account of various methods of treating arthritic disorders, under different circumstances. These are recommended partly upon Dr. Rowley's own authority, and partly upon the concurring practice of others. To the former are referred the beneficial effects of the muriatic acid.

POLITICAL.

ART. 34. *A Letter from the Right Hon. Charles James Fox to the worthy and independent Electors of the City and Liberty of Westminster.* pp. 44. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. London, 1793.

It is a dangerous thing for Mr. Fox to appear as an author. His character for talents and eloquence stands so high with the public, that (like England in its present contest with France) he has much to lose, and nothing to gain. But he has nothing to fear; the pamphlet before us will not lessen his fame. He vindicates his late conduct in parliament in that temperate, manly way which is peculiar to himself. His reasoning, unpolled by defamation, carries with it astonishing weight, and must convince those of his integrity who are not satisfied with the soundness of his judgment. The style is simple, pure, perspicuous, elegant, and nervous; and while in Mr. Burke we recognise the art and gaudy colouring of Cicero, we see here the style of Demosthenes. In a word, this letter is every way worthy of Mr. Fox. What a pity it is that this man does not oftener deign to instruct the world by his writings.

The following is a specimen of this performance:

' If we or our ally have suffered injury or insult, or if the independence of Europe be menaced by inordinate and successful ambition, I know no means of preserving peace but by obtaining reparation for the injury, satisfaction for the insult, or security against the design, which we apprehend; and I know no means of obtaining any of these objects but by addressing ourselves to the power of whom we complain.

' If the exclusive navigation of the Scheld, or any other right belonging to the States General, has been invaded, the French executive council are the invaders, and of them we must ask redress. If the rights of neutral nations have been attacked by the decree of the 19th of November, the National Convention of France have attacked them; and from that Convention, through the organ by which they speak to foreign courts and nations, their minister for foreign affairs, we must demand explanation, disavowal, or such other satisfaction as the case may require. If the manner in which the same Convention have received and answered some of our countrymen, who have addressed them, be thought worthy notice, precisely of the same persons,

sons, and in the same manner, must we demand satisfaction upon that head also. If the security of Europe, by any conquests made or apprehended, be endangered to such a degree as to warrant us, on the principles as well of justice as of policy, to enforce by arms a restitution of conquests already made, or a renunciation of such as may have been projected, from the executive power of France; in this instance again, must we ask such restitution, or such renunciation. How all, or any of these objects could be attained, but by negotiation, carried on by authorised ministers, I could not conceive. I knew, indeed, that there were some persons, whose notions of dignity were far different from mine, and who, in that point of view, would have preferred a clandestine to an avowed negotiation; but I confess I thought this mode of proceeding neither honourable nor safe; and, with regard to some of our complaints, wholly impracticable. Not honourable, because, to seek private and circuitous channels of communication, seems to suit the conduct rather of such as sue for a favour, than of a great nation which demands satisfaction. Not safe, because neither a declaration from an unauthorised agent, nor a mere gratuitous repeal of the decrees complained of, (and what more could such a negotiation aim at?) would afford us any security against the revival of the claims which we oppose; and, lastly, impracticable with respect to that part of the question which regards the security of Europe, because such security could not be provided for by the repeal of a decree, or any thing that might by the result of a private negotiation, but could only be obtained by a formal treaty, to which the existing French government must of necessity be a party; and I know of no means by which it can become a party to such a treaty, or to any treaty at all, but by a minister publicly authorised, and publicly received. Upon these grounds, and with these views, as a sincere friend to peace, I thought it my duty to suggest what appeared to me, on every supposition, the most eligible, and, if certain points were to be insisted upon, the only means of preserving that invaluable blessing.

But I had still a further motive; and, if peace could not be preserved, I considered the measure which I recommended as highly useful in another point of view. To declare war is, by the constitution, the prerogative of the king; but to grant or withhold the means of carrying it on, is (by the same constitution) the privilege of the people, through their representatives; and upon the people at large, by a law paramount to all constitutions, the law of nature and necessity, must fall the burdens and sufferings, which are the too sure attendants upon that calamity. It seems therefore reasonable, that they who are to pay and to suffer, should be distinctly informed of the object for which war is made; and I conceived nothing would tend to this information so much as an avowed negotiation; because from the result of such a negotiation, and by no other means, could we, with any degree of certainty, learn how far the French were willing to satisfy us in all, or any of the points, which have been publicly held forth as the grounds of complaint against them. If in none

none of these any satisfactory explanation were given, we should all admit, provided our original grounds of complaint were just, that the war would be so too:—if in some, we should know the specific subjects upon which satisfaction was refused, and have an opportunity of judging whether or not they were a rational ground of dispute:—if in all, and a rupture were nevertheless to take place, we should know that the public pretences were not the real causes of the war.'

ART. 35. *A Letter to the K***, relative to an immediate Declaration of War against France.* pp. 12. 4to. 6d. Bew. London, 1792.

The author of this letter recommends a war against France.

ART. 36. *Authentic Copies of the Declaration of M. de Bulbakow, Envoy from Russia, delivered at Warsaw May 18, 1792. With the Answer of the Republic of Poland to M. de Bulbakow's Declaration, dated June 1, 1792.* pp. 34. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. London, 1792.

This declaration and its answer have already made their appearance in the public prints; and it is now known to the world, with general regret, that the unhappy republic of Poland has been obliged to submit to the irresistible power of the Czarina, who seems to entertain the resolution of conferring its dominions on a younger branch of her own family.

ART. 37. *A Disquisition upon the Criminal Laws; shewing the Necessity of altering and amending them; with a Plan of Punishment, whereby Offenders might be rendered serviceable to the Community. The Existence of Witches investigated; and how far a Doctrine of Fate is consistent with God's moral and religious Government of the World. Also Reflections upon Duelling, Suicide, the French Revolution, &c.* By the Rev. E. Gillespy, Curate of Blisworth, Northamptonshire. pp. 71. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Northampton, printed.

This author is of opinion, that the power exercised by municipal governments, of taking away the life of a fellow creature for theft, or other similar offences, is repugnant to the dictates of reason, religion, and natural justice. As a substitute for capital punishment, he proposes that the property lost should be made good by the county; and that the culprit be obliged to work at some manufacture of general utility, such as that of woollen cloth, or the like, until he has repaid the money; a mode which has before been suggested by other writers. Mr. Gillespy appears to be void of credulity with respect to the existence of witches, to which may be added apparitions; and he explodes the doctrine of fatal necessity as having no foundation in nature, reason, or religion. On the other subjects, of which the author cursorily treats, his sentiments are judicious and benevolent.

DIVINITY.

ART. 38. *A Sermon, preached at St. Bride's, for the Royal Cumberland School, instituted in 1788, for the Support and Education of the destitute Daughters of indigent Masons. Published at the Request of the Brethren, Stewards, &c. at the Anniversary. By the Rev. Weeden Butler. Printed for the Benefit of the Children. pp. 22. 4to. 1s. White. London, 1791.*

If the congregation to whom this was addressed were equally affected by its humanity and elegance with ourselves, Mr. Butler could congratulate himself on having effectually roused every tender and amiable emotion of benevolence; he recommends the perpetuity of brotherly love so eloquently, that we should be happy to peruse his arguments in favour of the Christian virtues at any future period.

ART. 39. *A Vision from the Lord God Almighty, and great and mighty God of the whole Earth, &c. &c. pp. 32. 8vo. 6d. Printed for the Author, H. Hardy, and sold by all Booksellers.*

The relater of this vision, who professes himself to be an ambassador from God, is either an inspired vessel, or a lunatic: for the sake of his humility, we should be glad to think him the latter. The neckiness of a soul chosen by God to restore peace to the earth he rather departs from, in his rebuke to the bishops for neglecting his admonitions, against whom he denounces the wrath of God for treating him his servant with contempt; but we cannot well comprehend how the angels could select those well-known lines in a modern hymn,

Keep him, Oh! keep him, King of kings, &c.

This prophet, who almost literally calls himself a second Jesus Christ, threatens heavy judgments on this city, for refusing to receive him as the sacred delegate of the great and mighty God; but we fear (till his mission is acknowledged) the gospel, according to Henry Hardy, will never find a place in the succeeding editions of the New Testament.

ART. 40. *Commerce in the Human Species, and the enslaving innocent Persons, inimical to the Laws of Moses and the Gospel of Christ; a Sermon, preached in Little Prescot Street, Goodman's Fields, Jan. 9, 1792. By Abraham Booth. pp. 30. 8vo. 6d. and 12mo, 3d. Dilly. London, 1792.*

Ever since the popularity of the subject declined, sermons have been delivered in every part of England inveighing against the inhumanity of the slave trade. We admit that national policy is now its only support; and our author, whose name till now we have not known, even as a minister of the gospel, has given proofs of the strongest exertion of his natural abilities to effect the abolition of an irreligious commerce, which he considers as a disgrace to the philanthropy of a protestant country. This performance is above mediocrity, particularly in the correctness of the language.

Far

For the *ENGLISH REVIEW*.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For FEBRUARY 1793.

THERE are certain calamities incident to mankind which, from the constancy of their operation, and the frequency of their occurrence, seem inseparably connected with the moral government of the universe.

WAR

makes the most conspicuous figure in this class of human ills. Every attempt which has been made to check its progress or diminish its horrors, has only extended its influence, or increased its excesses. Principles which, in their nature, insured the prospect of general tranquillity, have been found in their propagation to terminate in the production of universal confusion; and religion and liberty, the distinguished gifts of Heaven to rational beings, and the primary sources of happiness to man, have filled the inhabitants of the earth with sorrow, and deluged its soil with blood. And though we may be reminded of the absurdity of arguing against immutable truth, because of the abuse to which it is liable, yet can the benevolent inquirer derive much consolation from reflecting that there is a degree of corruption existing among his fellow-creatures which converts the wholesomest aliment into the deadly poisons, and the choicest blessings, into the severest misfortunes. In the present convulsions of Europe, compared to which all former disorders are like the passing violence of the mountain torrent contrasted with the ravages of the overwhelming ocean, the timid may sink under impending misery, the pious may seek comforts from eternal goodness, while the actor in the busy scene should discharge his immediate duty with fidelity, and look forward in confidence to future felicity. The hostilities which have agitated the different nations in this quarter of the globe, may be attributed to the struggles between the popish and protestant states for the defence or extension of their peculiar religious tenets; the contests between sovereigns and subjects for the exercise of prerogative, or the establishment of liberty; and finally, the efforts of different communities to stop the progress of an ambitious neighbour, and prevent the destruction of that balance of power on which the general security is founded. The two former objects were the great causes of contests from the accession

accession of Charles the Fifth to the memorable treaty of Munster. From those sources the bloody civil wars which desolated Germany and France derived their origin; from them we may trace the obstinate dispute between Spain and Holland; the subjugation of Portugal by Philip the Second; and the execution of Charles the First in England. And at that period of history, as well as at the present era, men were not contented with perpetrating deeds of open violence, but recurred to massacres and assassinations, to gratify their resentments and alluage their angry passions.

The institution of the order of the Jesuits bears no remote analogy to the formation of the Jacobine club; in the character of Mirabeau we may discover many features of resemblance to that of Ignatius Loyola. Can the most superficial observer forbear from drawing a comparison between the horrors of St. Bartholomew, and those of the 2d of September; or from assigning as distinguished places in the temple of infamy to Roberspierre, Marat, and Ankarstroem, as to the murderers of William of Orange, and Henry the Third and Fourth of France? Enthusiasm, however produced, will commonly betray into similar acts of wickedness; those who are under its influence will only vary their means to effectuate the same ends; the misguided disciple of licentiousness, as well as the deluded votary of superstition, will think he does God service in destroying his fellow-creature; and happy would it be for the world if repeated experience would finally teach us, that vice is always in extremes, and that all virtue consists in moderation.

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS

at length, however, arose, at the call of Richlieu, the avenger of the protestant cause, and the protector of the liberties of the empire. By his victories, and those of his generals, the house of Austria was humbled to the dust, and the constitutional freedom of Germany secured. The crown of Portugal was restored to the family of Braganza, the Dutch republic established, and the monarchy of Spain confined within its natural limits.

REFLECTIONS.

These events seemed to prognosticate the continuance of permanent peace. But the principles which then existed in Great-Britain were as dangerous in their nature, and as destructive in their consequences, as those which at present have plunged Europe into war. The ancient constitution of this country was overthrown; and under the government of Cromwell, the English nation, uniting the energy of a monarchy to the valour of a republic, stripped the Spanish king of his most valuable possessions

possessions in the West-Indies; in humbling the pride of the United Provinces contributed to the establishment of its maritime superiority; and by a series of exploits, the success of whose execution could only be exceeded by the boldness and singularity of their conception, made itself at once the dread and admiration of the world.

But the causes which produced these terrors ceased to operate, because no attempt was made to resist them. Surrounding kingdoms bent for a moment before the blast, and, when it had blown over, resumed their former rank, and flourished with superior luxuriance. When a sovereign forms ambitious projects, they must be crushed in their commencement, or they may lead to the introduction of universal tyranny; but the conquests of a republic are always inimical to its internal security, achieved from pride, and relinquished from necessity. If, therefore, it is inconsistent with general safety to permit the existence of a commonwealth among our neighbours, by allowing them to pursue their schemes of domination, the pillars of their innovating system will totter to their basis. While opposition will only beget obstinacy, attacks produce unanimity, and opinions be defended in a degree proportioned to their mischievous tendency and intrinsic absurdity.

LOUIS XIV.

Pursuing the rapid sketch into which we have entered, we are brought down to the memorable reign of Louis the Fourteenth. This formidable potentate, whose projects were facilitated, in the beginning of his career, by the irregular policy of the Protector, and the needy profligacy of the second Charles, whose power in its meridian strength resisted the arms of the heroic William, and the combined efforts of Spain and the empire, sunk at last beneath the superior genius of Eugene and Marlborough; and a life of ostentatious magnificence was terminated by defeat and disgrace. His exhausted dominions enjoyed a momentary repose, and the pacific Fleury endeavoured to heal the bleeding wounds of his unhappy country. But scarcely had he made this attempt, when the failure of the male branch of the Austrian family, and the disputed succession to the Imperial throne, presented new objects of contentious ambition, and furnished fresh occasions of misery to man. At length, even this cause of hostility was done away; the validity of the Pragmatic sanction was acknowledged, and the rights of the Empress Queen admitted.

THE WAR 1756.

While every other power enjoyed partial repose, Great-Britain and France discovered a new ground of dispute, in endeavouring to

to ascertain the limits of Nova Scotia. An appeal was quickly made to the sword, and by the vigour of our councils, and the bravery of our troops, the British conquests were extended from the wilds of Canada to the banks of the Ganges. Such pre-eminence necessarily excited jealousy; the haughtiness with which it was displayed added fuel to the flame; the revolt of our colonies gave an opportunity of interfering, and we were at last compelled to listen to the voice of moderation, and retire impoverished and disgraced from the field.

THE PRESENT ERA.

We are once more engaged in war; and if a spectator may form an opinion from the indeterminate nature of the points in dispute, the violent and numerous passions which are roused on both sides, the situation of the rival nations, and the characters of their present rulers, he may predict a long, dubious, and vindictive contest. The claims which Great-Britain or its allies have upon the French are so implicated with the detestation which the crimes of that people have created, that, in asserting our rights, we may probably aim at gratifying our resentments; and, in repressing the spirit of licentiousness, direct a mortal blow at the existence of liberty. And while we are amusing ourselves with the belief that the decree of the 19th of November, and the opening of the Scheld, are the real motives which influence our conduct, the restoration of the former despotism, or the more awful resolution, '*Delenda est Carthago*,' may be lurking in our bosoms. The dreadful enormity, to which we have alluded on a former occasion, removed every remaining hope of pacification. When that complicated act of cruelty, injustice, and impolicy, was perpetrated, 'a nerve was touched' of exquisite feeling, and the vibration has reached to the heart 'of Europe.' Participating in an indignation, in which not to have shared would have been inhuman, and not to have avowed would have been cowardly, administration thought proper to dismiss M. Chauvelin. This step was followed by an immediate

DECLARATION OF WAR

on the part of France. The reasons which the Convention has assigned for this measure are the joint offspring of falsehood, insolence, and folly. That body has alledged, as the causes of rupture with Great-Britain, a treaty between this country, Austria, and Prussia, which never existed; the act for preventing the circulation of assignats; the alien bill; and the mourning for their unfortunate monarch.

Without straining one of these articles beyond their fair construction, they seem to import that this nation shall neither protect

protect its commerce from swindlers; the fortunes, lives, and liberties, of its subjects from spies or assassins; or even indulge in natural sentiments of compassion, without incurring the displeasure of the French republic.

THE MINISTER ROLAND

has retired from public life, leaving to his countrymen, as a testimony of his patriotism, an animated but faithful representation of the calamitous condition in which they are involved, and shewing the impossibility of amending it without an alteration in their conduct. History will do ample justice to the character of this illustrious man. Called to the helm of affairs at the moment when the greatest virtue was not to despair of the commonwealth, he directed it with equal firmness during the violence of domestic faction, and the storm of foreign invasion, remained in his official capacity while his talents could be useful to the state, and seceded with dignity when he could no longer act with effect. His darling wish seems to have been that of saving the late unfortunate monarch, on whose life or death he seems to have imagined it depended, whether France was to become an independent republic, or continue the prey of an infamous oligarchy; and justly concluded, that genuine freedom expired on the same scaffold with the unhappy Louis. Another alteration has taken place in the cabinet by the dismissal of M. Pache, and the succession of Bournonville to the appointment of war minister. But these partial changes give no hope of a reformation in the national system. Restless and insatiable ambition, boundless rapacity, and relentless cruelty, are still the odious features in the councils and people of France. And by their deportment within the last three years they have effected more to check the progress of truth and liberty than a thousand despots.

WAR AGAINST HOLLAND.

On nearly the same pretences which have directed its behaviour towards Great-Britain, this gigantic republic has declared war against the States of Holland. From their local situation, their commercial pursuits, and their comparative weakness, the Dutch had every reason to avoid hostilities. The States General, in an able and spirited memorial to the states of the particular provinces of the commonwealth, have pointed out the futility of the causes of rupture detailed by the Convention, and have warned their constituents of the pernicious consequences which must result to themselves from listening to the promises held out by that body.

Whatever may be the intestine divisions of the States of Holland, the consideration of what has happened in the Netherlands must convince the most discontented that no removal of their sufferings,


sufferings, or melioration of their condition, can be expected from the paternal aid of General Dumourier. Affluence to himself, plunder to his troops, and misery to his adopted relations, are the sole fruits of his offers of confanguinity. The ruined manufactures and decaying agriculture of Flanders and Brabant, are standing monuments of his ardent friendship; and his attachment to our allies will probably increase in exact proportion to the superior weight of their purses, and the more certain prospect of booty. And, as their highest honour and most distinguished benefit, they at last may be annexed to France, and have the happiness of being represented in the National Convention by some unprincipled individual from the mob of Paris. The syren song of destruction to tyrants, but peace to the people, will soothe the nations of the earth into security no longer; the spell is broken, and the charm dissolved; the veil is torn from the face of anarchy; and the fair form of liberty no longer prostituted to his licentious embraces.

FRENCH ARMY.

When we reflect on the miserable condition of the French army, the danger the republic must run of losing the Netherlands when its forces are engaged in the conquest of Holland, and the prompt and effectual assistance which the combined powers can afford to the States General, we are in no great apprehensions for their safety. Though, on the other hand, it may be urged, that 120,000 enthusiasts, under the united influence of avarice, ambition, and revenge, with the chance of an interference among the people whom they invade, are always formidable.—In the midst of the most destructive war the insular situation of

GREAT BRITAIN

insures to her every degree of internal tranquillity. The voice of the enemy will not be heard in our streets, nor are we likely to partake in the paternal benediction of our ancient rival. The Duke of York, animated with the personal courage of his family, has resolved to take the command of the Hanoverian troops. Administration has received an accession of strength by the junction of Lord Loughborough, who has been appointed to the seals. The nation possesses that degree of confidence in its rulers which is so peculiarly necessary in the season of danger; and we trust that by their exertions, aided by the spirit of the people, we may speedily be restored to the enjoyment of a permanent peace, producing in its train salutary subordination to the civil magistrate, and accumulated prosperity to the people.

 Communications for THE ENGLISH REVIEW are requested to be sent to Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-street, London; where Subscribers for this Monthly Performance are respectfully desired to give in their Names.

T H E

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For MARCH 1793.

ART. I. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, Vol. LXXXII. For the Year 1792. Part I.* pp. 197. 4to. 8s. 6d. sewed. Elmsley. London, 1792.

THE *Philosophical Transactions* of the Royal Society of London come forth in a richer dress, accommodated to the squeamish taste that now unhappily infects the public. The type is remarkably neat and clear, the printing is executed on a fine wove paper, and the work is hot-pressed; yet there is an appearance of affectation which ill suits the sober majesty of science.

The two medals for the year 1791 were adjudged to Major Rennel and M. de Luc.

Article I. On the Ring of Saturn, and the Rotation of the fifth Satellite upon its Axis. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.—The late observations of this celebrated astronomer have incontrovertibly established the proposition advanced in a former paper, that Saturn's ring is not single, but consists of two concentric rings. He has also ascertained the proportional dimensions: the outside and inside diameter of the larger ring are 8300 and 7740 parts, those of the smaller ring 7510 and 5900; and hence the breadth of the outer ring is 280, that of the inner ring 805, and that of the vacant space 115, corresponding to 2839 miles. Dr. Herschel does not state these measurements as rigorously accurate; he intends to repeat them afterwards with a micrometer applied to a forty-foot reflector. It is not improbable, he thinks, that the inner ring performs its revolution somewhat sooner than the outer, otherwise the unequal distribution of forces which would take place, might destroy the cohesion of such thin, broad planes. But the theory advanced in a *Memoir* of the Royal Academy of Sciences for the year 1787, that the ring of Saturn is composed of a number of narrow slips with different periodical motions, seems

not reconcilable to observation, and presents a chaos at which the mind revolts.

From a number of concurring observations which establish the periodic change of light in the fifth satellite of Saturn, Dr. Herschel concludes that it turns on its own axis in 79 days 7 hours and 47 minutes, the time in which it performs its revolution about its primary. This is likewise the property of our moon, which presents constantly the same face to the earth; and perhaps the same beautiful analogy extends to all the secondary planets. The regularity of the light of this satellite is another point of resemblance to our moon, and seems to indicate an exceedingly rare atmosphere, not charged with vapours. Its distance from Saturn subtends an angle of $8' 32''$, when that planet is at his mean distance.

A neat engraving is added of Saturn and his ring, in three positions.

Art. II. *Miscellaneous Observations.* By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.—Dr. Herschel announces a telescopic comet discovered in December last by his sister, in the constellation *Lacerta*. Its motion was direct, at the daily rate of three minutes of time in right ascension.

The changeable star in the neck of the Whale, still continues to exhibit its surprising variations of brightness; sometimes it rivals Aldebaran, and sometimes it is lost in the heavens. On the 13th of August, 1596, and on the 21st of October, 1790, it was most brilliant; and during that interval it had undergone 214 changes, which gives a period of 331 days 10 hours and 19 minutes.

The 55th of Hercules in Flamsteed's catalogue has totally disappeared since 1782.

On the 22d of October 1790, when the moon was totally eclipsed, Dr. Herschel perceived on the disk about 150 bright, red, luminous points. He cannot account for that singular phenomenon.

Art. III. *Experiments and Observations on the Production of Light from different Bodies, by Heat and by Attrition.* By Mr. Thomas Wedgwood. Communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—Mr. Wedgwood very properly introduces these experiments and observations with a concise but neat account of preceding discoveries. He divides his essay into two parts: on the light produced by heat;—and on the light produced by attrition. 1. Most bodies, when moderately heated in the dark, assume a glowing appearance. The lustre is most conspicuous if they be previously reduced to powder, and sprinkled on a mass of iron or brick, heated just under redness. Mr. Wedgwood gives a copious list of the substances which he

he found to be luminous by this treatment, arranged according to the intensity of their light. Among these we observe the fluors, feld-spat, marble, the simple earths, steatites, moorstone, earthenware, the metals and their calces, many of the neutral salts, paper, woollen, saw-dust, the oils, and wax. The light of these bodies is generally colourless, though with some exceptions. Blue fluor, at first, emits a fine green light, like that of the glow-worm; but this quickly changes into a beautiful lilac. Chalk and marble give commonly a reddish glow: however, they vary much in this property. Powdered marble was equally luminous in the exhausted receiver of an air pump; nor did that substance or fluor show any difference of light, when heated in pure, fixed, or inflammable air. Mr. Wedgwood thinks the same property may be extended to other substances; though we cannot admit the justness of this inference. We suspect that the luminous appearance is occasioned by a species of slow combustion. The pure air necessary for that process may sometimes be extricated from the body itself. That some subtle ingredients of the body are dissipated by the heat, seems probable from the smell which is perceived; and our author confesses, that the appearance is the most brilliant at first, and grows extremely faint after repeated experiments with the same substance. Our idea is farther corroborated by the following extract:

* Feldspat, the fetid fluor, and probably all phosphorescent bodies, dropt, in moderately fine powder, into a flask containing a small quantity of boiling oil at the bottom, emit a copious flash of light as soon as the powder touches the surface of the oil; when the particles of the body have lain at the bottom of the heated fluid for about a minute, they become but faintly luminous; if the flask be then agitated, so as to raise some of these particles out of the oil, and lodge them on its sides, they suddenly rekindle into the same brightness as at first, and preserve this reassumed lustre for some time; and even after being again washed down into the oil, they may be readily distinguished from the particles which have remained at the bottom. This experiment is extremely beautiful, and is not at all obstructed by the faint light of the oil; it succeeds best with the stinking blue fluor of Derbyshire.*

Perhaps the pressure of the oil obstructs a minute extrication of the oxygenous and hepatic gases from the fluor.

2. Substances of the same kind, rubbed against each other in the dark, exhibit a luminous gleam. Rock crystal, diamond, topaz, sapphire, Iceland spar, mica, glass, and sugar, yield a white light; quartz, moorstone, and corune, a faint red; feld-spat, flint, and white enamel, a bright red; chert, agate, and biscuit-ware, a deep red. If agate, quartz, rock crystal, &c.

be applied to a wheel of fine grit, which is turned with moderate velocity, the touching part will emit a white light, and continually discharge sparks that retain their lustre for a second or two, and even inflame gunpowder. The luminous appearance ceases the instant that the attrition is discontinued. Transparent bodies struck against each other emit a flashing light, and their whole mass seems illuminated. In such as are opaque, the lustre is confined to the spot where the collision is made. The more transparent the substance, the whiter is the light which it emits. These appearances are not electrical; and they take place equally in water, and in pure, inflammable, and fixed air. Most earthy bodies, on attrition, give out a peculiar smell, which depends not on the nature of the surrounding fluid. Quartz stones communicate this smell to water in which they are rubbed.

Mr. Wedgwood concludes with some general observations on what he calls the phosphorism of bodies. He supposes that the surface of a hard body exposed to attrition is heated equally with the powders sprinkled on a hot mass of iron or brick; and therefore he refers the luminous appearance to the same cause. This idea is ingenious and plausible; but we cannot help thinking that both these cases are attended with a partial decomposition, a feeble combustion. Bodies, no doubt, have often subtle ingredients which elude the application of chemical analysis. Sure we are that the notion which ascribes to calcareous phosphorus the extraordinary power of absorbing and again emitting light, is without foundation. Many facts might be cited to disprove this opinion. One, extremely obvious, we shall mention: were the substance to discharge its light, the surface would appear bright and well-defined; nor would there be that livid glow which environs it like an atmosphere. The exposure to the rays of the sun or of a candle, by exciting an intestine motion among the superficial particles may accelerate the tendency to dissolution. The application of heat may have the same effect.

The author of this paper, we understand, is a son of the famous Mr. Wedgwood. As the production of a young man, it has great merit, and affords a flattering prospect of future researches. May he emulate the talents and the virtues of his father! He has not to struggle with those difficulties which require such resolution and perseverance to surmount.

Art. IV. Experiments upon Heat. By Major-General Sir Benjamin Thompson, Knt. F. R. S. In a Letter to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—This paper is intended as a continuation of one printed in a former volume of the Transactions, and bears date June, 1787. It seems to have been overlooked since;

since; nor did its merit entitle it to an immediate publication. The object of Sir Benjamin's research was the confining and directing of heat, with the view of economy in the articles of dress and fuel. For this purpose, he employed what he calls a *passage thermometer*; consisting of a common thermometer inserted within a glass tube terminating in a ball, in which a given weight of the substance to be examined was placed. The instrument was heated to near the boiling point, then plunged into ice-water, and its rate of cooling noted. The substances tried were raw silk, sheep's wool, cotton wool, fine lint, beaver's fur, hare's fur, and eider down. The conducting power of these was only the half or third of that of air, and pretty nearly alike in all of them; hare's fur, however, and eider down, seemed to be the slowest in communicating heat, and consequently the best adapted for clothing. A subsequent experiment showed that this quality is increased by condensing these substances; contrary to what might at first be expected. Our author has stumbled on a proposition, which, though little attended to, is abundantly manifest, viz. that air conducts heat by actual transference, or the flow of its particles. But he is unfortunate in his proofs; for the experiment to which he appeals is inconclusive. This fact, however, will account for the results now cited. Those light substances, by their numerous branching fibres, obstructed the circulation of air between the bulb of the thermometer and the exterior ball, and, in that way chiefly, occasioned the slow communication of heat. Sir Benjamin thinks that loose spongy bodies have an attraction for air, and instances particularly the *semen lycopodii*; but we see no sufficient grounds for that conclusion, nor would such an hypothesis explain the phenomena, since there can be no election among the aerial particles.

We are surprised that the author should imagine water to be quiescent while it conveys heat, and should call it an *unelastic fluid*, when the contrary was indisputably proved more than thirty years ago.

The paper concludes with some pretty remarks on the beneficent plan of nature for correcting the original inequalities of climate and season; the snowy fleece which shelters the northern regions from the wintry blast, and the mighty ocean which refreshes the sultry air of the tropical countries, and serves as a grand deposit of heat,

Art. V. A new Suspension of the Magnetic Needle, intended for the Discovery of minute Quantities of Magnetic Attraction: also an Air Vane of great Sensibility; with new Experiments on the Magnetism of Iron Filings and Brads. By the Rev. A. Bennet, F. R. S. Communicated by the Rev. Sir

Richard Kaye, Bart. F. R. S.—Some of the experiments detailed in this paper appear to be trifling and superfluous. Mr. Bennet has been at much pains to ascertain the extreme tenuity and pliancy of the spider's thread. Such is the glutinous quality of this singular substance, that, though twisted by 18,000 revolutions, it shewed no disposition to recover its original texture. Hence the author was led to employ it for suspending a magnetic needle: this was made of the smallest harpsichord wire, the north pole carrying a fine tapering hair, and the middle having a small gold wire twisted round it, to which the spider's thread was fastened. The suspension was made in a thin vertical box, having on the one side a piece of glass, and at the bottom a portion of a graduated circle of ivory, to which the hair served as an index. The sensibility of this instrument was so great, that a bar of soft iron, nine inches long, sensibly affected it at the distance of three feet. Mr. Bennet repeated the experiment of Mr. Cavallo, on the increased attraction of iron filings by effervescence with dilute vitriolic acid, and found it to be fallacious and depending on a variety of collateral circumstances. The paradoxical assertion of the same gentleman, that pure brass, or the compound of copper and zinc, possesses a weak magnetism, was discovered to be equally unfounded: yet if the brass contained a minute portion of iron, the magnetic virtue was rendered more sensible by hammering.

The spider's thread was also applied by Mr. Bennet in the construction of an air vane, which consisted of a fine gold wire having the down of a dandelion attached to its extremity, and suspended horizontally in a cylindrical glass. This delicate instrument would turn towards a person who approached within a few feet of it: a proof that the smallest inequality of heat will occasion a considerable motion in the atmosphere. In the present case, the air contained in the glass flowed, chiefly from below, towards the warm side, along which it ascended, and then diffused itself. We know not what use this instrument can ever be applied to.

The surmises and conjectures interspersed in this paper are often crude and superficial; and, upon the whole, Mr. Bennet claims attention more as an expert mechanic than as a philosopher.

Art. VI. Part of a Letter from Mr. Michael Topping to Mr. Tiberius Cavallo, F. R. S.—Mr. Topping had been employed to extend a series of triangles along the coast of Comorandel. He had already proceeded three hundred miles from Madras, and was about to advance on the other hand to Cape Comorin. He took the angles very accurately with an Hadley's sextant, by means of three moveable signals, constructed of

of bamboos and eighty feet high. The measurement of the base line appears not to have been equally exact; it was performed by laying rods along the ground, the distance being 11,636 yards. But allowance must be made for the hardship and inconvenience which a surveyor must suffer in that burning climate, assisted only by black servants. A table of the measures is added, together with some demonstrations and calculations of a very obvious nature.

Art. VII. Description of Kilburn Wells, and Analysis of their Water. By Mr. Joh. Godfr. Schmeisser. Communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—These wells appear on the right of the Edgware road, about two miles from London. The water has uniformly the temperature of 53°, and a specific gravity of 1,0071. The analysis is the most intricate we have ever seen. 24lb of the water contain of

Fixed air	- -	84 cubic inches,
Hepatic air	-	36 ditto.
Vitriolated magnesia	- -	910 grains.
Vitriolated natron	- -	282 ditto.
Muriated natron	- - -	60 ditto.
Selenite	- - - -	130 ditto.
Muriated Magnesia	- -	128 ditto.
—— calcareous earth	-	6 ditto.
Aerated magnesia	-	12½ ditto.
—— calcareous earth	-	24 ditto.
Calx of iron	- - -	3½ ditto.
Resinous matter	- - -	6 ditto.

Sum 1561½ grains,

We must commend the precision with which the experiments are related.

Art. VIII. Observations on Bees. By John Hunter, Esq. F. R. S.—The labours of the bee have ever been the subject of wonder and of panegyric. Its correct architecture, its regular police, and the various circumstances of its economy, seem almost to surpass the powers of instinct, and invite the philosopher closely to examine and contemplate. The application of the moderns to this enticing study has produced some curious discoveries; but much still remains to be investigated, and more to be established.

We rejoiced to find that Mr. Hunter had turned his attention to this subject. His acknowledged abilities led us to expect instruction and entertainment from his inquiries. We are disappointed. The greatest part of the paper is filled with an embarrassed detail of facts already known. The author seems

more disposed to mark the errors and ridicule the opinions of former observers, than to add any thing positive to the stock of natural knowledge. And if, by pointing out several inconsistencies, not to say absurdities, in the accounts of MM. Schirach and Debray, he has created doubts with regard to the reality of their fine discoveries, he leaves us quite in the dark. The celebrated names of Reaumur and Bonnet he treats with equal contempt. Nor does this essay attract by the graces of its style, which is uncommonly verbose, careless, and uncouth. We now proceed to select some of the more important remarks.

Mr. Hunter observes, that the bee is the only insect which produces heat. That of a hive in July was found to be 83° , and in December 73° . He thinks that their maggot or chrysalis could not endure a cold of 60 , or even 70° . As the bees are lean and ill clothed, they are obliged to cluster together, in order to retain their warmth, which also contributes to soften their wax, and render it more platic.

In swarming, he supposes that part of the old bees joins the young brood. They carry with them a stock of honey and wax. He reckons the number to be 6 or 7,000; it is usually computed at 15 or 30,000, which is probably more accurate, having been determined by weight, not by measure.

He thinks that the wax is not elaborated from the flower-dust which the bees gather on their legs, but is an external secretion, and detached in scales from under the belly.

The working bees have the structure, but not the functions of females. From analogy we may presume that the drones impregnate the eggs by actual copulation with the queen, or mother of the swarm. In that class of insects where the male is short-lived, his mate receives the seminal injection in a bag, which preserves the quickening influence till the contents of the ovarium are ripe for exclusion. Such at least is the case, Mr. Hunter assures us, with the silk moth.

The anatomical descriptions are certainly the most valuable part of this paper; for which reason we shall present our readers with an extract. The following is an account of the complex structure of the bee's tongue:

‘ It is of a peculiar structure, and is probably the largest tongue of any animal we know, for its size. It may be said to consist of three parts, respecting its length, having three articulations. One, its articulation with the head, which is in some measure similar to our larynx. Then comes the body of the tongue, which is composed of two parts; one a kind of base, on which the other, or true tongue, is articulated. This first part is principally a horny substance, in which there is a groove, and it is articulated with the first, or larynx; on the

the end of this is fixed the true tongue, with its different parts. These two parts of the tongue are, as it were, inclosed laterally, by two horny scales, one on each side, which are concave on that side next to the tongue; one edge is thicker than the other, and they do not extend so far as the other parts. Each of these scales is composed of two parts or scales, respecting its length, one articulated with the other: the first of those scales is articulated with the common base, or larynx, at the articulation of the first part of the tongue, and incloses the tongue laterally; this terminates in a point. These scales have some hairs on their edges.

‘ On the termination of the second part is placed the true tongue, having two lateral portions or processes on each side, one within the other: the external is the largest, and is somewhat similar to the before-mentioned scales. This is composed of four parts, or rather of one large part, on which three smaller are articulated, having motion on themselves. The first, on which the others stand, is articulated at the edges of the tongue, on the basis or termination of the last described part of the tongue: this has hairs on its edge.

‘ A little further forwards on the edge of the tongue are two small thin processes, so small as hardly to be seen with the naked eye. The middle part of all, of which these lateral parts are only appendages, is the true tongue. It is something longer than any of the before-mentioned lateral portions; and is not horny, as the other parts are, but what may be called fleshy, being soft and pliable. It is composed of short sections, which probably are so many short muscles, as in fish; for they are capable of moving it in all directions. The tongue itself is extremely villous, having some very long villi at the point, which act, I conceive, somewhat like capillary tubes.

‘ This whole apparatus can be folded up, into a very small compass, under the head and neck. The larynx falls back into the neck, which brings the extreme end of the first portion of the tongue within the upper lip, or behind the two teeth; then the whole of the second part, which consists of five parts, is bent down upon and under this first part, and the two last scales are also bent down over the whole; so that the true tongue is inclosed laterally by the two second horny scales, and over the whole lie the two first.’

The œsophagus, according to Mr. Hunter, after it has entered the abdomen, dilates into a fine transparent bag that contains the honey, which is occasionally regurgitated or conveyed into the stomach.

[*To be concluded in our next.*]

ART. II. *A Volume of Letters from Dr. Berkenhout to his Son at the University.* pp. 392. 8vo. 6s. boards. Cambridge, printed : sold by Cadell, London. 1790.

IN order to facilitate his son's progress on his first introduction to the university, Dr. Berkenhout kept up a regular correspondence with him. This had the double advantage of fixing the young man to his studies, and rendering them at once more familiar and interesting to him. As such an intercourse must have produced many letters, and passages of others which could afford but little amusement to the world, the Doctor has selected those which relate principally to the elements of the sciences his son was about to cultivate. The first letter contains many severe and just animadversions on the mode of education at the public schools, and particularly on the numerous holidays. The second is still more pointed, and perhaps with still greater propriety, on the abominable custom of *sags*—a custom which seems intended to perpetuate all the miseries of aristocracy, by teaching at once servility and oppression. We have next many useful remarks on the proper behaviour of young men at their first introduction into life, and on the absurdities of many customs still retained at the colleges. Though there is nothing particularly new in this part, yet so great is the importance of the subject, that we shall transcribe what is said on the discipline of the university:

‘ You are become a member, and I hope you will prove not an unworthy member, of one of the first universities in Europe; and of a college that has produced many eminent, very eminent men. But, alas! the number of men distinguished for superior knowledge and abilities, is far exceeded by the number of drones that have issued from the hive, and have mixed with the illiterate part of mankind, undistinguished and forgotten.

‘ To what cause shall we attribute this lamentable excess of ignorance in the number of persons educated at Oxford and Cambridge? It must, I think, be ascribed to a variety of causes, partly acting upon each other, and some of them totally independent. The first cause, which operates alike in both universities, is a positive adherence to statutes and customs, which, not according with the present improved state of learning, nor with the manners of the present times, fatigue and disgust the students immediately on their admission. Extreme early rising and constant attendance in the chapel, are hardships in which they perceive no utility. They comply with reluctance. They are disgusted with an academical life. They reside no longer than is absolutely necessary, and they look forward with impatience to the day of their release. In such a temper little improvement can be expected. No young man will apply to learning *con amore*, in a disagreeable situation.

‘ I am,

‘ I am, nevertheless, far from thinking that young gentlemen should be entirely unrestrained; but I am of opinion, that these restrictions should be confined to their immoralities, and that, in all other respects, their residence at the university should be rendered as agreeable to themselves as possible. There is a principle in human nature so averse to coercion, particularly about the age of sixteen, that the lectures of your tutors make very little impression, because they are attended by compulsion. In every other university in Europe, attendance upon lectures is a voluntary act: no tasks, no exercises, are imposed. Nevertheless, the public lectures are universally attended, and the students listen with an eager desire of information; because their attendance is voluntary.

‘ It cannot be denied, that the colleges in our English universities retain an obvious similitude to Roman Catholic convents; and it is very surprising that the reformation should have produced so little, so very little, alteration in their institutes, habits, and regulations; many of which are totally indefensible on principles either of policy or utility.

‘ In these strictures I have told you nothing that you did not know before; nothing with which the whole world is not as well acquainted as myself; nor have I discovered any blemishes that are not seen and felt by every rational member of both universities. Why then, you will ask, are no steps taken towards reformation?

‘ You remember Æsop’s fable of the mice and the cat. Who will hang the bell? A first reformer is sure to create many enemies. It is very difficult to stem and divert into another channel, a torrent of prejudice that has been so many years accumulating, without being carried down with the stream. But such a reformation requires a power which the universities themselves do not possess. It must be the act of the legislature; and the administration in this kingdom is generally too deeply involved in national politics to spare the time and application that a reform of such importance would require.

‘ It is possible that, in some future period, a fortunate concurrence of circumstances may produce a rational and uniform system of education in both universities. There are now resident at Oxford and at Cambridge men fully adequate to the delineation of a comprehensive, an universal plan, of academical tuition, which, with the advantages of their present foundations, might very easily be rendered superior to any institutions of the kind in Europe. No other universities possess such noble and spacious edifices for the accommodation of students; no universities are so munificently endowed; no other universities possess such public and college libraries; and certainly no seminaries of learning can boast so many members of distinguished erudition in every branch of literature: but these singular advantages are sacrificed to an unavoidable (*unavoidable*, in the present state of things) compliance with ancient statutes, manners, and customs.

‘ I have, in my last letter, acknowledged the defects which foreigners observe in the general economy of English universities. They are astonished to find that our professorships are commonly *secures*;

secures; that there is no continued series of public lectures in arts or sciences; and that college tutors are almost the only sources of information. This naturally creates surprise; because, in all other universities, the students have the advantage of daily public lectures, without vacation or interruption, during the greatest part of every year. What is the cause of such laborious attention of the professors in these universities? The answer is obvious. They are paid by their auditors, who are under no obligation to attend them; consequently their emoluments depend on their reputation.'

Left, however, this description should be discouraging to a young student, the Doctor very properly teaches him, that, instead of finding fault with institutions it will not be in his power to correct, it will become him better to derive from them all the advantages that many of his predecessors have done. To convince him that this is practicable, he gives a brief biographical sketch of some of the principal characters our universities can boast of, in a style very proper to excite the emulation of a young competitor for fame. The mention of Sir Francis Bacon offers an opportunity of introducing a slight sketch of the Aristotelian philosophy, as discarded by Descartes, of the latter as supplanted by Sir Francis, and of the further improvement of rational philosophy by Sir Isaac Newton.

The progress of academical studies is now regularly pursued through the rest of the volume, with no other interruption than an occasional digression on family subjects, introduced with spirit, and never long enough to tire the reader. Logic comes first in order, and is dismissed with a short chapter. It must be admitted, that mathematical studies fit the mind so much more for the inquiry after truth than the subtleties of logic, that we can readily agree with the Doctor in the inutility of this latter branch of education. But this chapter might also have been omitted; and though its brevity is its principal recommendation, yet the obscurity consequent upon it, makes it unintelligible to those who have not a previous knowledge of the subject. The young man having been educated at a public school, received of course only what is called a grammar education. On this account the Doctor is more elaborate on the subject of figures, and has taken much pains to render the higher branches of arithmetic intelligible and pleasing to his pupil. The succeeding letter contains some further account of Aristotle and his works, which introduces the subject of rhetoric. This is continued through several pages, with an elaborate description of Mr. Pitt and some other political characters. The remarks that follow on university discipline and early rising, are much more to the purpose, and those on religion, perhaps, the best of all.

As

As a respite from severer studies, the Doctor recommends a general knowledge of music, and gives many philosophical, technical, and historical remarks on the science. We shall not enter the lists with him on the elaborate inquiry, whether the ancients had a just knowledge of harmony, which he flatly denies. This subject has been often and learnedly discussed; and it would carry us too much out of our way to enter upon it while reviewing a work not professedly written on music. Geography next engages our author's pen; and his observations are such as are well calculated to fix the attention of a classical scholar. Botany follows; and it is not difficult to see how anxiously the Doctor wishes his son should pursue this science at his leisure hours.

From this review of the work before us our readers will perceive that they are not to expect a complete treatise on education, but a few remarks likely to arrest the attention of youth, and facilitate their progress, particularly in those branches which do not make a necessary part of academical institution. In all these respects our author has acquitted himself well; and we scruple not to recommend his letters as a useful addition to every student's library.

ART. III. *Divine Worship founded in Nature, and supported by Scripture Authority; an Essay. With Remarks on Mr. Wakefield's Arguments against Public Worship, and Strictures on some Parts of his Silva Critica, and English Version of the New Testament. By John Pope, Tutor in the Belles Letters and Classical Literature in the New College, Hackney.* pp. 214. 8vo. 3s. Whites. London, 1792.

OF all the performances that have come to our notice on this threadbare subject, none is so unfortunate as Mr. Pope's. Had not Mr. Wakefield been answered with point, wit, and sound argument, we might have kept awake under the perusal of dull detail and hackneyed authorities in support of an institution pretty universally acknowledged, and almost for the first time attacked. After this our readers will not expect us to take much notice of the first part of this volume. And yet we must not say Mr. Pope wants courage, or is totally destitute of novelty or witty attempts. 'The objection,' says he, 'to extempore prayer will hold against all oral communication whatever:' and afterwards, 'arguments of this sort, which may be employed against all communications of ideas whatever, are worthy of the cause they are adduced to support, and require nothing more than the bare mention to be properly appreciated.'

'appreciated.' This is a circumstance that has escaped all Mr. Wakefield's former answerers; and it remained for Mr. Pope to discover, that to pray to an omniscient being is the same as to converse with, and inform a fellow mortal. May not Mr. Wakefield retort, 'Arguments of this sort,' &c.

But Mr. Pope undertakes to be the champion of Mr. Wakefield's other combatants, or to *answer* his replies to his former *answerers*. In this he is more successful; that gentleman having so frequently committed himself by his temper, and by having too much undervalued some of his assailants. In the examination too of the *Silva Critica* and English Version of the New Testament, Mr. Pope has pointed out many little inaccuracies, and perhaps a few affectations, which, though they do not prove a superior degree of learning, may be serviceable to Mr. Wakefield in his future criticisms.

ART. IV. *A Tour through the South of England, Wales, and Part of Ireland, made during the Summer of 1791. With Cuts.* pp. 434. 8vo. 10s. 6d. boards. Edwards. London, 1793.

A Dramatic wag observes, that it becomes every one to write an account of his travels, if it be only of the brick fields in a ride to Newington. In apology, however, for the disposition some men indulge of describing what has often been described before, we must allow much for that talent of easy writing by which they can enliven the most hackneyed subject. That such, barring a little affectation, is the case with this author, will be admitted by most readers. For the convenience, therefore, of those, who, intending to visit the same country, may wish to consult the writers that have described it, we shall trace the author through his whole tour, and, by an extract or two, give a specimen of his style.

After an introduction on the advantages of travelling to dispel melancholy, we are, without any notice being taken of the well-known road to Portsmouth, at once introduced to that town and celebrated harbour. These are sufficiently described, as well as the fleet at that time riding at Spithead. The Isle of Wight is visited in a most slovenly manner, by one who professes to give a tour of the south of England: only Cowes, Newport, Steephill, and Carisbrook Castle, are noticed. Were neither Shanklin nor the wild beauties on the western side of the island deserving the attention of a sentimental writer? But if these were insufficient to detain him in this delightful abode of peace and plenty, could not the house of industry arrest his notice in his journey from Cowes to Newport, or back again?

This

This peaceful abode of poverty, where all the indigent of the island find a secure retreat, where the young are employed, and the aged treated in a manner consistent with their former rank in society. A retreat which banishes beggary from the island, and, by the encouragement it holds out to industry, diffuses a sense of independence that disarms poverty itself of half her terrors—that needs no bars to confine its inhabitants—which is not crowded with sickly prisoners, whose only crime is the tyrannical institutions of this free country; and the only part of which that is suffered to decay are the refractory cells, which are already discovered to be useless.

The passage from Cowes to Southampton is prettily described, and the last town detains our author for a page or two. Salisbury is the next point; and, if we except the story of the two heroes who welcomed his majesty from the cross at the top of the cathedral, little is said of this city but what is to be met with every where else. The account of Wilton is still less excusable, being only a few extracts from the *Description* sold on the premises. That of Stonehenge deserves more notice, as containing most of the conjectures concerning this celebrated antiquity, a more accurate description than the generality of 'Short Tours' afford, and six copper-plates, which explain and illustrate the appearance and disposition of the stones. Our traveller returns to Salisbury, and drives post through Blandford and Dorchester to Weymouth. The peninsula of Portland stops him, and here, as well as in every other part of the tour, he appears more at home in the bowels of the earth than on its surface. Mines, and the manner of working them, are described with a degree of accuracy that is rarely consistent with the interest the author seems to feel, and has the art of transfusing into his reader. The beaten road is pursued through Exeter to Plymouth, the account of whose harbour and dockyard would have been more interesting to most readers than the blunders or witticisms of poor Jeremy, who, if he had, as we are told, any resemblance to La Fleur, has been villanously misrepresented by his master. But even Jeremy's fun is insufficient to keep our author and his fellow travellers awake in the dull road from Plymouth to Truro. An anomalous character is brought forward, half mad, half rational, half bold and half mean, alternately civil and rude, boisterous and tender, the rencounter with whom leads to nothing, except to fill up the blank that would arise from the description of wide prospects of barren heaths, extensive plains without a hedge or bush, stone walls, bleak hills, &c. The account of Truro is lively and pointed; but the mines principally attract our author's notice; and we shall take this opportunity

opportunity of introducing our readers to him and his faithful companion Jeremy:

‘ Soon after my arrival at Truro, I visited some of the most considerable mines in its neighbourhood, and, selecting that of Poldeis, which is the oldest, the largest, and I believe the deepest in England, went to the bottom of it.

‘ When you declare your intention of descending with the miners, the captain, as he is called, takes you into a room, and equips you in a woollen shirt, trowsers, night cap, and jacket. As for stockings, it is usual not to wear any, and, agreeable to the advice of the experienced miner, we descended with our legs bare. They then tie old shoes to your feet, fit for the purpose, and having accommodated each person with a candle in his hand, and half a pound more suspended from his neck, he is declared completely equipped, and conducted to the mouth of the mine. It requires a good strong stomach, and a large portion of curiosity, to go through all this. For, besides the fatigue and toil in the mine, the clothes they give you are as greasy as sweat can make them, smell abominably, and are often stocked with a republic of creepers. Should any one be induced, hereafter, to explore these regions of darkness, I would advice him to prepare, at least, a woollen shirt and a pair of trowsers, that he may avoid those unpleasant sensations, which arise in every man’s breast when compelled to have recourse to a miner’s wardrobe.

‘ These preliminaries being adjusted, we began to descend. A miner went first, to serve as a guide, and to caution us against the danger which frequently arises from the broken staves in the different ladders. Jeremy followed the miner. After Jeremy came my companion and myself; and last of all the captain, giving us this comfortable assurance, ‘ That if we made a slip, or a single false step, or looked either to one side or the other, we should be ground to atoms in the steam engine, or dashed to pieces in the mine.’ The descent resembles a large well, with an immense machine, for the purpose of draining the mine of water, continually in motion all the way down. Mr. Bolton, of Birmingham, receives annually some thousands from the county of Cornwall for the use of them. I had not time to examine these useful machines, therefore shall not attempt a minute description of them. In this mine there was a very curious one, which, with a small power at the top, by perpendicular shafts, passing down the same aperture, worked in two directions, and drained the mine north and south at the same time.

‘ We continued to descend by ladders, which were from four to five fathoms in length, and being soon wet through, weak from want of proper respiration, and half stifled with the fumes of sulphur, began to hesitate whether we should proceed or not. Curiosity got the better of our fears, and we went on. Had I known what we should endure, I never could have attempted so much as I did. I had no idea of the difficulty and danger attending such an undertaking, and only wonder that accidents are not more frequent among the miners,

who run up and down these slippery places like lamplighters, singing and whistling all the way.

At about eighty fathoms depth we came to a vein of copper ore, where two sorry wretches were busied in the process of their miserable employment. With hardly room to move their bodies, in sulphureous air, wet to the skin, and buried in the solid rock, these poor devils live and work for a pittance barely sufficient to keep them alive; pecking out the hard ore by the glimmering of a small candle, whose scattered rays will hardly penetrate the thick darkness of the place. Those who live on earth in affluence, and are continually murmuring for additional comforts, would surely, if they saw these scenes, be happy with what they have. I took a pick-axe and worked, and putting a small piece of the ore in my pocket, 'This,' said I, 'shall serve as a memento of a lesson I received in the bowels of the earth; and may I think always of the comforts of life as I do at this moment.' Proceeding in our descent, we reached at length the bottom of the mine, and stood one hundred and thirty fathoms below the surface of the earth.

Thus far we had seen a mine of copper; but in this place is contained a vein of tin also, and a communication is dug from the copper to the tin. Through this we crawled upon our hands and knees, sometimes sprawling upon our bellies, over wheelbarrows and stones, pick-axes and hammers. This we found was trifling to that which we encountered afterwards, for we crossed over into a rapid stream whose waters rushed abundantly over us, as we crawled along in a space just sufficient to admit us upon all fours. Jeremy poured forth his ejaculations, and concluding all was over with him, vowed, 'If he escaped this time, it should be his own fault if he was ever caught so near the old gentleman again!'

This description is continued for several pages, till the tin is brought to the melting-house. The processes are detailed with accuracy in all their stages, from the first opening of the mine to the perfect state of the metal, its assay, and exportation. From Truro we are conducted to the Land's End by Falmouth and Helston, in each of which places our author contrives to entertain us with short but appropriate conversations. At the Land's End the Logan, or rocking-stone, becomes a fresh subject of description and historical inquiry. Indeed, our author, notwithstanding his frequent attempts at levity, is more of a philosopher than a buffoon. We have before observed how little he is able to make of Jeremy; and here we may add, that the story of 'Nan!' confirms our opinion. Had he conversed with many inhabitants of London, he might have known the import of that monosyllable; but if this mode of acquiring knowledge was beneath his notice, Shakspeare himself might have informed him.

Nothing now detains our traveller in his return by Devonshire and Somersetshire till he arrives at Wells, whose cathedral is *his* off in a few words :

' The front of this cathedral, which has been built upwards of five hundred years, is the first object which strikes the attention. Such a profusion of imagery, such an exuberant display of carved work, so embodied with cherubim and seraphim, mitredom and martyrdom, kings, demigods, and devils, is a spectacle more unique than I ever met with before, or ever desire to see again. Thus much for its exterior; and of the interior little need be said, except that it is well swept and white-washed, and contains a curious antique clock, and a painted window.'

This is not the only instance in which our author opposes the popular taste of architecture; and not always, in our opinion, with success. In viewing a Gothic edifice he should remember we look only for general effect and delicate workmanship. This cathedral is deficient in neither; and it would be absurd to expect the simplicity of Grecian architecture in a building of that date. But our author is too apt to consider his own opinion as the standard of taste. Hence he is as profuse in his admiration of Bath as fastidious in viewing cities abounding with older edifices. But what he could find noble in the abbey or cathedral, as he chooses to call it, does not immediately appear. Had he selected the monuments of Beau Nash and Mr. Quin, we might have expected observations less hackneyed than those against gamesters. Bristol and its environs are described in a spirited and interesting style. From this place our traveller proceeds by the new passage, but advises his readers to prefer the old one, across the Severn into Monmouth. The bold prospects, antiquities, and, above all, the fossil productions of this country afford a fine scope for our author's genius. He conducts us, with equal ease and satisfaction, through Caerwent, whose antiquities he describes with taste and vivacity—Newport, Cardiff, famous for the tower in which the unfortunate Prince Robert was confined twenty-six years by one king his relation, and deprived of sight by another. This fortress is now in the possession of Lord Mountstuart, by his marriage with a branch of the Windsor family. His lordship is employed in fitting up part of the castle for the reception of his family: and happy might it be for the peasantry in other parts distant from the metropolis, if their landlords would condescend to spend among them some part of what they collect by the industry of their tenantry.

The rout is continued to the celebrated castle of Caerphilly, in describing which our author, though not so elaborate, is full

as lively as Mr. Wyndham. From this region of conjecture, this edifice which credulity dates four hundred years before the Christian era, we are conducted to a monument of self-taught ingenuity. Though the story of the bridge across the Tæffe is in every body's mouth, yet as the following account is short, and describes very accurately the character of the architect, we scruple not to present it to our readers :

' Pont-y-pridd, that beautiful bridge, which attracts the notice and wonder of every body, and which Europe, nay the whole world, cannot parallel, is composed of a single arch, thrown over the Tæffe in the lightest manner possible. This arch is the segment of a circle, whose chord is 140 feet. It was built by a methodist preacher, one William Edwards, a common mason of Glamorganshire. This man stipulated with the county, and for a stated sum undertook to erect a bridge at this place across the river Tæffe. The undertaking was hazardous in the extreme, as the great rapidity and violent force of that river had hitherto put a stop to every proceeding of that nature, and had carried every thing before it. Notwithstanding all these difficulties, Edwards finished his first work, and erected a bridge of three arches. This was of short duration; the ground, in which the foundation was laid, proved unfavourable, and soon convinced the architect, that, even if the floods spared his work, the instability of its base would soon be the cause of its fall. The work was scarce finished ere the rains came, the rivers swelled, and, overwhelming every obstacle to its fury, swept away the bridge. Edwards, undaunted by disappointment, beheld with composure the remnant of his labours, and perceiving how futile it was to oppose any work against the prodigious violence of the Tæffe, first conceived the noble design of throwing a single arch over this ungovernable stream. This he accordingly completed; but the crown of the arch being very light and thin, was quickly forced upwards by the heavy pressure of the buttments, which were necessarily loaded with an immense quantity of earth, that the ascent of the bridge might be practicable.

Undismayed by repeated ill success, Edwards renewed his labours with additional vigour, and boldly dared to improve upon his work by the execution of a *chef d'œuvre* in architecture. He removed a large share of weight from the buttments, and considerably lessened the remaining pressure by forming through each of them three cylindrical tunnels. By this means his purpose was completely effected; the tunnels answer all the end proposed in them, and add a lightness and elegance to the structure, which seems suspended in the air above the reach of the most violent floods, and bids defiance to the utmost rapidity of the river.

' It is foreign to my present purpose, or else, perhaps, it would be amusing to trace, even in imagination, the various and discordant opinions which might arise, if the remains of such a work had been discovered among the ruins of Greece or Rome; but

Virtutem incolumen odimus.'

The Cambrian architect emerged from his native mountains, left the monument of his exquisite taste and genius to vie with the finest works of antiquity, and then retired unnoticed and unknown, to his former obscurity.

As I fear the reader is already sufficiently satiated with my encomiums upon honest William Edwards and his bridge, I beg leave to lead him to a curiosity of a different nature. It is to be found about a mile further upon the banks of the Taeffe. The whole river falls about fifteen feet among broken rocks and precipices; and, although an epitome of a cascade has been constructed by Nature in so singular a manner, that no one would think his time thrown away if this spectacle alone had cost him a journey from Caerdiff. Whenever there is a cavity among the rocks, or any part of the river, undisturbed by the cascade, the water appears as clear as crystal. Before its fall it flows over smooth tablets of stone, and slabs of a cubic form, but so regular and even in their surfaces, that they appear like an immense work of art. This does not at all diminish from their picturesque beauty; for they are so irregularly disposed, and bordered on each side by such a luxuriant display of mountains, woods, and precipices, that it is not possible to form an idea of scenery more romantic.

We could willingly extend this extract further if our limits would permit. The description of the river is continued with much taste, and perhaps somewhat poetically. The facts, however, of the height to which the salmon will leap, and the curious manner in which they are caught, are deserving the notice of a traveller, and are well ascertained. In reading the description of Margam Abbey, we were much concerned to find that these beautiful ruins remained unprotected but by a roof of oiled paper, from the time Mr. Wyndham visited them in 1777 till our author's excursion. Swansea falls next under notice—Caermarthen, and the intervening villages—the journey or voyage to Pembroke, is enlivened with a pleasant anecdote—Milford Haven and Humberston conduct us to Havrefordwest. In this last place we have a melancholy instance of the inadequacy of our present laws. A Mr. G—th, an unfortunate officer in his majesty's navy, who for a trifling debt has suffered five months imprisonment in an abominable dungeon; without any support but from the benevolence of strangers, and the uncertain charity of a few among the inhabitants; denied even water to gratify his thirst, unless he can raise a halfpenny to pay for it; and condemned to linger here without a prospect of release. When, in addition to this, we are further told, that the gentleman thus confined has, in the service of that country by whose institutions he is thus oppressed, sailed round the whole globe, though now confined to a dungeon. He was brought into his present situation by no imprudence

prudence of his own, but by the failure of his agent, and was fixed at Haverfordwest, not by a propensity to rambling and dissipation, but in obedience to the state, and in protection of the honest tradesman against smugglers.

We cannot easily join with our author in his sentimental exclamations against the GENTLEMEN OF HAVERFORD, nor the ALDERMEN OF HAVERFORD. We would ask him if he believes that any of the gentlemen he thus violently exclaims against ever took so expensive a journey as himself—if any of them could afford it—lastly, if either of them had received those advantages of cultivating the amiable feelings of the soul which he seems so well to have improved? We leave him to draw the inference. *Escaping* from Haverfordwest, he proceeds through Cardigan and Aberythwyth, concluding the tour of South Wales with a beautiful description of the Devil's bridge, the grand fall of the Monach, and some pithy remarks on Mr. Gilpin.

Of North Wales we shall say but little; the wild sublimity of this country can only be conceived by those who visit it; and to such we recommend this performance as well calculated to direct their attention to the most striking objects. Of Ireland we have no further account than of Dublin, with its poverty and public buildings. Returning by Holyhead, the author pursues his rout towards London, through part of Wales to Liverpool, Newcastle-under-Lyne, Lichfield, which introduces Garrick, Johnson, and Miss Seward, to our notice—Birmingham, its riots and manufactures—Stratford upon Avon, with the history of the mulberry-tree and jubilee—Woodstock—Blenheim, which is chiefly copied, except where it describes defects, from the printed book. This cannot be said of Oxford, the account of which is droll, saucy, and sometimes just. From hence we return by Henly and Maidenhead to London. In the conclusion the author promises hereafter to appear under his own name, and to give some account of continental incidents. We hope it will be with his own name, and as much divested of prejudice as philosophy ought to be. We confess ourselves tired of looking for truth among the rubbish of anonymous publishers, or the exaggerations of highflown metaphor. But a statement of facts will always be valuable, and ought to supersede that emptiness of allegory with which our author thinks proper to conclude before he has had the trouble of making himself master of a single incident.

ART. V. *Columbus; or, A World discovered: an Historical Play, As it is performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Morton, of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn. pp. 66. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Miller. London, 1792.*

WE have often lamented the present situation of the English stage; and have frequently experienced that disgust and fatigue which the authors of modern tragedies and comedies create by their awkward attempts to conceal their plagiarisms, and by their total want of genius and invention. Music, pageantry, and tinsel, usurp the place of dignified poetry, of sterling wit, of manly sentiment, and the genius of Shakspeare is gone for ever. We are, however, half inclined to believe that blame is more imputable to the times than to those who write for the stage. The spirit of commerce (*l'esprit commerçant*) in all countries degrades and debases the human mind—its immediate effect is avarice, which has been truly said to be the grave of every elevated virtue, of every manly sensation, of every noble thought. A race of usurers, of stockjobbers, of financiers, find no leisure, and feel no inclination, to encourage the muses; and if they attend a theatric representation, it is not to admire the energies and the effects of human genius; but to view that pageantry and show which result from no effort of the intellect, but from the mere mechanical operation of wealth. Hence that encouragement to operas, to theatric parade, and gaudy exhibitions. Hence that fondness for representations in which the voice of Nature is never heard. We may, therefore, be a nation of rich men—we may be a people possessed of all the advantages of trade—we may be able to ascertain the balance of commerce, and the balance of power—but we are not a nation of noble and high-minded men—we are not such men as those of ancient Greece and Rome, who sacrificed at the shrine of public weal, private interests, private passions, and private animosities. To this digression, to which we were irresistibly impelled, we will put an end, and proceed to the review of the *Historical Play of Columbus*. And let not Mr. Morton suppose that these prefatory remarks are the immediate consequence of a perusal of his work. By no means—they resulted from a general, not a particular survey of the situation of the English stage.

Though it might be imagined that the main plot of this piece resulted from the history of Columbus, yet in reality the tale of *Cora and Alonzo*, so exquisitely told by Marmontel in his *Incas of Peru*, forms the grand feature of the play. Cora, the daughter of Solasco, appointed priestess of the temple of the sun, swears, like

like the vestal virgins of Rome, to resign the joys of social life, and to rest contented in seclusion and tranquillity. The sight of Alonso, however, sways her from her purpose, and being seen in his company, she is condemned to die. The courage of her lover, and the interference of Columbus, rescue her from death at the very moment when the archers are about to infix an hundred arrows in her body. The marriage of Cora and Alonso, as might be expected, immediately follows.—Part of the story of Columbus, viz. his discovery of America, the mutiny of his soldiers, and his being sent to Spain, is introduced into the piece; and there is an underplot, resembling that in *Inkle and Yarico*, carried on by Harry Herbert, an Englishman, and Nelti, an Indian female. We cannot say that there is much originality of character or novelty of incident in the play; nor have we discovered any emanations of genius. The characters of Harry Herbert and Nelti, perhaps, deserve the greatest share of our praise.

As a specimen of the manner in which the play is written we have selected two of the best scenes, one a serious, the other an *allegro* scene:

Enter Columbus, Moscoso, and Troops.

Columbus. Roldan, what means this outrage, this treason to thy king? Why spur on to desperation and rebellion your few mistaken followers, whom my power, did I not abhor revenge, could in an instant sweep from the earth?

Roldan. Columbus, on *thou* let me retort the name of traitor.—I stand here, chosen by the general voice, the avenger of their wrongs.—'Tis thee they charge with treason to their king, after thou wink'st at heresy, and hast made them the slaves of savages.—How dost thou answer?

Enter Herbert.

Columbus. Answer to thee?—Roldan, press not my patience farther.—But to convince thee, traitor, how false are thy aspersions, and that I reign sovereign in my people's love—mark me; be this the test [*Takes a spear from one of the soldiers, and throws it between him and Roldan, dividing the stage.*] Let all, who do not in their hearts believe I mean them fairly, and judge thee worthier to command them, pass that javelin without fear or doubt.—Be that the barrier between my influence and thine.

Roldan. Much it glads me thou hast proffered so fair a trial; and I swear, if they approve thee, I will resign into thy hand my sword and life.

Columbus. Now, my brave soldiers, hear my firm intent; I will lead you on to wealth, but not by massacre; I'll make you all, the wonders of the world, rich and beloved. Then, without control, decide your fate; but, remember—you have but one step to make

from honour to disgrace. [*Valverde, and those on Columbus's side, pass over to Roldan.*]

Columbus. Be it so—men without hearts are not worth regretting.

[*Herbert, who has been standing on Roldan's side, after eyeing with contempt those who deserted Columbus, passes between the front of the stage and Roldan, to Columbus.*]

Herbert. Great Sir, accept my humble services—despise not him, who honours you—pray excuse these tears—let me embrace your knees.

[*Falls, and embraces his knees.*]

Columbus. My heart! my heart!—Herbert, thy gratitude unmans me.

[*Embraces him.*]

Roldan. Now, Columbus, look on that paper; by it thou'lt find thy king distrusts thee [*giving the paper.*] And pray you all remember, I exerted not the high authority of which my sovereign thought me worthy, till he was deserted and despised.

Columbus. Peace, fiery indignation;—down rebel heart, and do not choke my utterance.—Well, Viceroy [*giving his staff to Roldan*], where are your racks, your instruments of vengeance?

Roldan. Oh, do not fear—we mean no torture.

Columbus. And think'st thou, villain, the subtlest inquisitor, who has out-damn'd his fellows in inventive cruelty, could give a pang like that I feel, in seeing thee possessed of power to make the happy wretched?—Oh, my poor Indians! who shall now defend you, when this traitor, fit leader of his band of demons, like the arch-fiend, now lighted on a world of innocence, shall diffuse his devilish spirit, and extend hell's empire,

Roldan. Bring forth his chains [*Columbus is chained*].—for so the king enjoined he should be sent to Spain whenever he proved unworthy.

Herbert. Chains! Hell and fury [*draws his sword, but is disarmed.*] Confusion!

Roldan. Captain, observe that with strict attention you obey your orders [*pointing to Herbert*].—for that stubborn rebel—bear him to torture.

Columbus. Hold, Roldan—thy vengeance must be most complete when I descend to ask a favour from thee—let my humility glut thy vindictive wrath.—Allow that Englishman to share my fortunes.

Roldan. Bear him away.

Columbus. Roldan, a wretch like thee should have a coward's caution. Dost thou not dread, that in his dying moments, when, in defiance of thy tortures (for I can read his noble soul), he braves thee to the last, and glories in a death of honour, dost thou not fear he may infect this ruffian crew with some faint sparks of honesty, and make them less fit instruments for thee?

Roldan. Bear him to death.

Herbert. Heaven preserve your excellency.—Will you, great Sir, condescend to indulge the last wish of vanity, and, when you have nothing else to do, write to England the story of my fate; that when my

my fortune shall be enquired after, my friends, with joy sparkling through a tear, may say, Herbert stuck to his commanders to the last, and died as an Englishman ought.

* *Columbus.* My noble fellow, this hand shall justify thy fame.

* *Herbert.* Then I am easy.—May your portion of happiness be equal to your virtues—farewell.—[To Roldan.] Perhaps, Sir, you never were at the death of an English game-cock. Will you do me the favour of attending my execution?

* *Roldan.* Take him from my sight.

* *Herbert.* Hands off, reptiles! [to Roldan.] That you are the most infernal scoundrel the devil ever made a friend of, all your worthy associates about you will, I dare say, allow—but I brand you with the name of fool, for enabling an humble man like me, thus to triumph over you, to defy you—scorn you—laugh at you—Hands off, reptiles!

[Exit Herbert, guarded.]

* *Columbus.* [to Roldan.] Is then my triumph for a world's discovery, and the trophies which I bear to Spain, to tell attending crowds my glory, a body bowed by ignominious fetters?

* *Captain.* Pardon me, Sir, if I presume to beg that I may so far mitigate their rigour, as, when on board, to free the noble prisoner from their weight.

* *Columbus.* You know not what you ask—with me to forfeit the honours my king has heaped on me—no, these are his gracious gifts, and I've not yet learnt to disobey him—and here I vow, before that Power who cheers the soul of suffering virtue, though their cankerous rivets corrode my very bones, no hand but Ferdinand's shall free me from them.—By heaven, my soul pants for the moment, when, thus accoutered, I may meet his presence, and ask him—how I have deserved these favours from him.

* *Officer.* All is ready.

* *Roldan.* Bear him then on board. [Exit Roldan and Troops.]

* *Columbus.* Thou guardian of the innocent, to thy supreme protection I commend the generous natives of this hapless land; assist them to defend their liberties from the fell grasp of this detested crew—To them extend thy mercy; and let me pour my thanks for that celestial fortitude which glows within my breast—with it I can defy the storms of fortune, safe in the approval of a guiltless mind, which, not deserving wrong, can never feel disgrace.

[Exit Columbus and Attendants to the Boat.]

—————
* *Manent Herbert and Nelti.*

* *Herbert.* And so, my pretty Indian, you live very happily.

* *Nelti.* Yes, all the day long.

* *Herbert.* And have you no monks who pray for you, dispute with you, and burn you alive when you don't think as they do?

* *Nelti.* Oh! no.

* *Herbert.* Poor devils, what a way they must be in.

* *Nelti.* Don't you come from the other world?

* *Herbert.*

* *Herbert.* What, you see something angelic about me, eh!—Yes, my love, I come from a little paradise, call'd England.

* *Nelli.* Is England a world?

* *Herbert.* A bit of one; but, little as it is, it somehow contrives to manage all the rest.—Shou'd you like to live in England?

* *Nelli.* O yes; I suppose English women, arm'd with spears made of that pretty, hard iron, climb the mountains, and destroy the wild bull.

* *Herbert.* Destroy the wild bull! No, my dear; our English women find prettier amusement in encouraging the breed of horned cattle—the use of the pretty hard iron is confined to the men; and no great favourite there; for I know many flourishers of spontaneous, who have a cursed antipathy to cold iron. Who is that elegant creature you were conversing with?

* *Nelli.* Her name is Cora; she was this day admitted a priestess of the sun. The handsomest virgins are always selected to sustain that sacred office.

* *Herbert.* The handsomest! you were then, on that account, not—

* *Nelli.* Did I say the handsomest? Oh dear, I mean they select the most sedate—for, from this day, she must never leave the temple, or converse with any except the priests.

* *Herbert.* Except the priests? Go where you will, you find those gentlemen always contrive to be well taken care of—would you like to become a priestess?

* *Nelli* [*sighing*]. Last night perhaps I should.

* *Herbert.* Charming sensibility! and may I, my sweet girl, interpret that sigh in my favour?

* *Nelli.* Ah! you will not love me.

* *Herbert.* Not love thee! By Magna Charta, I'll resign my life, fortune, and liberty, so thee. Besides, I'll bring thee beads, clothes, music—

* *Nelli.* Ah! that is not love! They only try to please the eye, who find their actions cannot touch the heart. No presents or toys could influence Nelli. No, not if you were to give her an iron javelin and a tame tiger.

* *Herbert.* Indeed!—very delicate presents for a young lady.

* *Nelli* [*aside*]. I wish I could make him love me.—How do women in England gain their lovers' hearts?

* *Herbert.* Generally by using them like dogs; for, when a woman studiously avoids looking at a man, abuses him on all occasions, and is kind to every one else, we naturally conclude they love each other to distraction.

* *Nelli* [*aside*]. I never can find in my heart to use him ill.—What ugly thing is that?

Enter Dolores and Bribo, from a Boat.

* *Herbert.* A doctor of physic, who having killed all his patients in the old world, except his wife, who would never take his medicine, has ventured hither, in pursuit of new patients, new fees, and perhaps a new bedfellow.

Nelli. And what's the other?

Herbert. A lawyer and a coxcomb.

Nelli. What's a coxcomb?

Herbert. A reptile, my dear, that is found in abundance in all countries, and yet is not easily described—it is a kind of managrat, which men drive from them, because they hardly consider it as belonging to them, and the women won't receive, because they think it won't breed.

Dolores. All seems pretty quiet.—I say, Bribon—

Bribon. What do you say, Doctor Dolores?

Dolores. This seems cursed mild, wholesome, unprofitable air for a physician.—But Heaven is merciful; wherever I go, patients increase.

Bribon. There seems plenty of gold; and plenty of gold, plenty of law follows as naturally as a bill of costs.—I say, Doctor, do you see that sweet, pretty, wealthy-looking girl—

Dolores. I fancy I shall have some pretty female practice here. I was a great favourite in Spain; for my maxim was, always to stick to my friends to the last.

Herbert. Doctor, welcome to the new world.—So, you kept on board till all was quiet.

Dolores. To be sure—consider the importance of my life to you all; but my chief reason was, that the famous astrologer, Doctor Diego Diablasco, told me something ill would happen if I were rash;—but there seems no danger. That's a very pretty girl, and I love a fine young girl almost as much as I do fine old gold.

Herbert. And have you, Doctor, so soon forgot your old help-mate in Valladolid?

Dolores. Ah, poor old Dorothy! But, Lord, I hate constancy as much as I hate health [*addressing Nelli.*] Permit me, sweetest of savages, to inquire after the state of your health—how is your pulse?—let me feel how it beats—beats. [*Takes her hand.*]

Nelli. Beat—how it beats? Perhaps it beats louder than you think.

Dolores. Then there's the more necessity I should feel it, my pretty, pretty—

Nelli. There then.

[*Strikes him.*]

Dolores. Zounds! a dozen such patients would do for me!

Herbert. Doctor, I hope to be honoured with the hand of this charming girl.

Dolores. Oh, with all my heart—I'm sure I've had enough of it.—But you can't marry her.

Herbert. Why, thou professor of the glorious art of manslaughter!

Dolores. Because the Pope allows no religious ceremonies with heretics—all dealings with them must be in the way of plunder and glorious intrigue.

Herbert. The Pope! ohaw—I shall sit down here for life, contented with a little.—I'll build a neat, convenient house, after the fashion of the country, with a plain silver door, and a diamond knocker.

The

The apartments shall be merely lined with plates of gold, neatly carved—the sofas of silver tissue, and stuffed with the down of humming-birds. As for fresco-work of emeralds, rubies, pearls, amethysts, and such nicknacks, my wife may ornament her dairy and dressing-room with them. In short, I'll have every thing in a snug, comfortable way, without shew or expence.

Dolores. Without shew or expence!—Pray, great Sir, will you allow a poor man to gather up the chips, and now and then take a peep into your golden apartments?

Herbert. Why, *Dolores*, by the time I build, I fancy you'll have a snug *laden* apartment of your own—so, go count beads instead of decays, and try not to cheat young Harry out of his mistress, but old Harry out of your soul. [Exit Herbert and Nelti.

Bribon. Zounds! let's follow; for who knows, but in a minute these savages may knock my brains out with one of your shin-bones.

Dolores. Come along.—Oh! I wish I had the doctoring of you for a week, you English mastiff. [Exit.

The language is correct, except in a very few instances. The following sentiment of *Corra* is expressed in a confused manner: 'Leave me before I well can realife our partings; for if I give scope to the dire thought, madness or death must rob me of all thought.' How the lady was to be robbed of thought by thinking, we are not capable of ascertaining.

The prologue is *mediocre*; the epilogue excellent. The scenery is very grand, and the author has allowed the manager ample room for the exhibition of grand processions, rich decorations, and costly dresses.

ART. VI. *An Historical Journal of the Transactions at Port Jackson and Norfolk Island; with the Discoveries which have been made in South Wales and in the Southern Ocean, since the Publication of Phillip's Voyage, compiled from the official Papers; including the Journals of Governors Phillip and King, and of Lieutenant Ball; and the Voyages from the first Sailing of the Sirius in 1787, to the Return of that Ship's Company to England in 1792. By John Hunter, Esq. Post-Captain in his Majesty's Navy. Illustrated with Seventeen Maps, Charts, Views, and other Embellishments, drawn on the Spot by Captain Hunter and Bradley, Lieutenant Davies, and Governor King. pp. 582. 4to. rs. 11s. 6d. boards. Stockdale. London, 1793.*

MANY criminals in this country having been condemned to transportation, Botany Bay, on the east coast of New Holland, was the place determined upon to form a settlement for the purpose. This region had been explored by Captain Cook, in his first voyage round the world, and called by him New

New South Wales. The project was carried into execution by government in 1787; when the *Sirius*, with the *Supply* armed tender, six transports, having on board 600 male, and 200 female convicts, accompanied by three store-ships, set sail for the place of destination. After a voyage, the history of which is circumstantially related, they arrived at Botany Bay in the beginning of the year 1788.

As this narrative affords the most authentic account of the natives of New South Wales, we shall present our readers with some of the particulars concerning them. They came towards the shore in great numbers, and appeared to the voyagers to be a lively and inquisitive race. They are a straight, thin, but well made people, rather small in their limbs, but very active. They examined with the greatest attention, and expressed the utmost astonishment, at the dress of the voyagers. It is the author's opinion, that they considered the several parts of the clothing as so many different skins, and the hat as a part of the head. They appeared very cheerful, danced and sung with the strangers, and imitated their words and motions. They were, for the most part, armed with a lance and a short stick, which assists in throwing it. This stick is about three feet long, is flattened on one side, has a hook of wood at one end, and a flat shell, let into a split in the stick at the other end, and fastened with gum. The lance is laid upon the flat side of this stick, where at the upper end is a small hole, into which the point of the hook of the throwing stick is fixed. This retains the lance on the flat side of the stick: then poising the lance, thus fixed, in one hand, with the fore-finger and thumb over it, to prevent its falling off sideways, at the same time holding fast the throwing stick, they discharge it with considerable force to the distance of about sixty or seventy yards. Their lances are, in general, about ten feet long; the shell at one end of the throwing stick is intended for sharpening the point of the lance, and for various other uses.

While some of the voyagers were employed in the survey of the harbour, and at a considerable distance from the ship, they were surprised to find the natives in greater numbers than they had before observed in any other place. A great many armed men appeared upon the shore, wherever the voyagers approached it, and in a threatening manner seemed to insist upon their not presuming to land. During the whole time the voyagers were near them they hailed each other through the woods, until their numbers were so much increased, that it was not judged prudent to attempt the making any acquaintance with them at that time. In two days after, the voyagers appeared again in the same place, better armed, and prepared for an interview.

interview. The number of the natives who now appeared was not so great as formerly, but it was imagined they were at no great distance in the wood; and this was soon found to be the case. Seven of them, invited by signs, came over in their canoes to the voyagers, among whom they seated themselves by the fire, but did not relish the food and drink with which the latter presented them.

The women in general are well made, not quite so thin as the men, but rather smaller limbed. As soon as some of them were ordered to approach the voyagers, about twenty men sallied from the wood, completely armed with lance and shield: they were painted with red and white streaks all over the face and body, as if they intended to strike terror by their appearance. The bodies of the men are much scarified, particularly their breasts and shoulders: these scarifications are considerably raised above the skin, and, though not in any regular form, are certainly considered as ornamental. The men, thus armed and painted, drew themselves up in a line on the beach, and each man had a green bough in his hand, as a sign of friendship. Their disposition was as regular as that of any well-disciplined troops could have been; and this party, it is conjectured, was seemed entirely for the defence of the women, in case any insult had been offered them.

The voyagers have seen a few of both sexes with tolerably good features, but in general they have broad noses, large mouths, and thick lips. They are abominably nasty; smearing their skin with the fat of such animals as they kill, and afterwards covering it with every sort of dirt, which is never washed off, except when accident, or the want of food, obliges them to go into the water. Some of the men wear a piece of wood or bone, thrust through the septum of the nose. Most of those whom the voyagers have seen wanted the two foremost teeth in the upper jaw; and many of the women want the two lower joints of the little finger of the left hand. Their hair is short, fringed, and curly, and as they seem to have no method of dressing or combing it, is filthy and matted. The men wear their beards, which are likewise short and curly. Men, women, and children, go entirely naked, as described by Captain Cook: they seem to have no fixed place of residence, but lay themselves down to rest wherever the night overtakes them. They appear to live chiefly on what the sea affords. The men fish with a spear, or fish-gig, in the use of which they are very dexterous.

With respect to religion, the voyagers have not yet been able to discover that they have any thing like an object of adoration. Neither the sun, moon, nor stars, seem to occupy any more of their

their attention than they do that of the other animals which inhabit the country. Their dead they certainly burn.

The animal described in the voyage of the Endeavour, called the kangaroo, is found in great numbers. One, lately shot, weighed 140 pounds; its tail was 40 inches long, and 17 in circumference at the root. The voyagers ate the flesh of it with great relish, and consider it as good mutton, though not quite so delicate as that of this country.

The opossum is very numerous, but not exactly like that of America. There are several other animals of a smaller size, down to the field rat, which, in some part or other, partakes of the kangaroo and opossum. The voyagers caught many rats with a pouch for carrying their young when pursued; and the legs, claws, and tail, of the rat are exactly like those of the kangaroo. The author is of opinion, from the great similarity in some part or other of the different quadrupeds in this country, that there is a promiscuous intercourse between the different sexes of all those different animals. The same observation, he remarks, might be made on the fishes of the sea, the fowls of the air, and even the trees of the forest.

There are in this country a great variety of birds, insects, and reptiles, as well as of beautiful plants and flowers. The flax plant has been found in several places, but not in considerable quantity.

The state of the weather in this settlement appears to be various; but notwithstanding the sudden vicissitudes of heat and cold, the experience of almost four years has convinced the voyagers that the climate is not unhealthy. It is no uncommon thing for the thermometer to be in the morning at 56° or 60°, at two o'clock in the afternoon at 100°, sometimes 102° and after sunset down to 60° again.

Such is the general account of New South Wales, collected from the present narrative. Our limits will not permit us to give any detail of the various transactions in the new settlement; but they appear to be related with fidelity; and the colony, notwithstanding every unfavourable circumstance, is evidently in a prosperous situation. The engravings are well executed, and the tables of wind and weather, in the different voyages, have every appearance of accuracy.

ART. VII. *A Discourse, preached on Sunday, December, 30, 1792, at the Parish Church of Kenton, on the following Words: Isaiah, liij. 1. 'The Spirit of the Lord God is upon me; because the Lord hath anointed me to preach good Tidings unto the Meek: he hath sent me to bind up the broken-hearted, to proclaim Liberty to the Captives, and the opening of the Prison to them that are bound.'* By the Rev. R. Polwhele, Author of Discourses on different Subjects, &c. &c. pp. 29. 8vo. 1s. Cadell. London, 1793.

IN his advertisement the author observes, that 'this discourse was drawn up without any view to publication, the composition of it being incidental.'

We shall present our readers with a few extracts, as specimens:

'Of the people,' says Mr. Polwhele, 'who have embraced the religion of Christ, the most discriminating feature is courtesy of manners; and this is not a mere superficial politeness. It influences, indeed, the modes of behaviour; but it affects more than the exterior; it is a courtesy that flows from the heart, and operates on the conduct. In every country where it exists it disposes all ranks of people to remember their common character as men, and to soften, for their mutual ease, the harsher distinctions of society. It checks the progress of tyranny; distinguishing between arbitrary power and wholesome severity. It superadds to the regal the parental attributes, and bids the people approach the throne with filial reverence, whilst kings are their nursing fathers, and queens their nursing mothers' Nor, whilst I mention courtesy and humanity, can I avoid the recollection of one individual character, the contemplation of whose singular virtues seems to have kindled in the bosom of every Englishman an emulative ardor, and whom this country views as her offspring with more pride than she beholds the trophies of old renown. It must already have occurred to you that I mean the charitable HOWARD, whose benevolence was as extensive as the bounds of creation! Yes, generous man! thine was not the philanthropy of the sedentary declaimer, whose heart expands with the glow of self-approbation, as he defines the nature of Christian charity. Thy heart was ever alive to the sufferings of humanity; and thy activity, unchecked by danger, carried thee over half the globe, to relieve the miseries of mankind! Thou hast exemplified, in an eminent degree, the love of Christ! and every pulpit should resound with thy eulogium! Regardless of thy health, thy repose, and thy safety, it was thine to traverse inhospitable tracts, to mingle with barbarous multitudes, to plunge into the midst of contagion! Thither thy noble fervor urged thee—'unterrified by the arrow that slieth by day, or the pestilence that walketh in darkness!' It was thine

to descend into the noisome dungeon—to visit those who had no comforter! It was thine ‘to heal the broken-hearted, to proclaim liberty to the captives, and the opening of the prison to them that are bound!’ In honour of thy virtues, to perpetuate thy memory, we have been emulous to raise to thee statues; but let us rather be zealous, where we can, in imitation of thy example! Blessed spirit! that now reposest on the bosom of thy Father and thy God!’

Mr. Polwhele has inscribed his discourse to the Bishop of Exeter.

ART. VIII. *The Environs of London: being an Historical Account of the Towns, Villages, and Hamlets, within Twelve Miles of that Capital; interspersed with Biographical Anecdotes. By the Rev. Daniel Lysons, A. M. F. A. S. Chaplain to the Right Hon. the Earl of Orford. Volume the First. County of Surrey. pp. 593. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. boards. Cadell. London, 1792.*

VARIOUS accounts of the environs of London have already been published, generally differing from each other in extent of compass, and all of them confined to a short detail of the subject. The present work comprises not so large a circuit as some of the former have described, but it greatly surpasses in copiousness every preceding narrative of the kind. We shall lay before our readers a short abstract of the chief particulars of each parish, in the order in which they occur.

Addington. The name of this parish was anciently written Edintone; but concerning its etymology the author could find nothing satisfactory. It lies within the hundred of Wallington; the village being situated about three miles to the east of Croydon, at the foot of a range of hills, to which it gives name. On the brow of the hill, towards Addington, is a cluster of tumuli, about twenty-five in number: they are of very considerable height; one of them is nearly forty feet in diameter; two others are about half that size; the remainder are very small. The greater part of them appears to have been opened.

The church of Addington is a very small structure. It consists of a nave, chancel, and a small south aisle, separated from the body of the church by plain pointed arches, and massy ancient pillars of rude workmanship. The church appears to have been partly rebuilt, about the reign of Edward the Third; the windows of the north wall being of the architecture of that period. The tower, which is at the west end, is low, square, and embattled.

Barnes. This parish lies in the hundred of Brixton, and is situated near the Thames, at the distance of six miles from

Hyde Park Corner. The manor of Barnes, or Barn-Elms, was the country residence of Sir Francis Wallingham, one of the ministers of Queen Elizabeth, and afterwards the temporary residence of Cowley the poet.

The church of Barnes is one of the most ancient structures in the neighbourhood of the metropolis.

Battersea lies about three miles from Westminster-bridge. Its name has undergone several changes. In the Conqueror's survey it is called Patriceſy, and has since been written Bat-trichſey, Batterſey, and Batterſea; each variation deviating still farther from its original signification. Much vague conjecture has been bestowed upon the etymology of this name. The manor of Batterſea, which before the conquest belonged to Earl Harold, was given by the Conqueror to Westminster Abbey, in exchange for Windsor. After the dissolution of the monasteries, the manor was reserved in the hands of the crown. In 1610 it was assigned, among others, for the maintenance of Prince Henry; and in 1627 was granted in reversion to Oliver St. John, Viscount Grandison; from which time it continued in the family of St. John till 1763, when it became the property of Earl Spencer.

Bolingbroke-House, formerly York-House, stood on the bank of the Thames. The greater part of it was pulled down a few years since; and on the site of it is erected a horizontal air-mill, of a new construction, and of very large dimensions. It was first used for preparing of oil, but now as a corn-mill.

The village of Beddington lies near two miles to the westward of Croydon. The manor house is situated near the church: it is built of brick, and occupies three sides of a square; the centre consisting of a large and lofty hall, with a beautiful Gothic roof of wood. The great door of the hall has a curious ancient lock, very richly wrought. A shield with the arms of England, moving in a groove, conceals the key-hole. This was formerly the residence of the Carew family.

The church of Beddington consists of a nave, two aisles, and a chancel; having at the west end a square tower with buttresses, embattled. It is supposed to have been erected in the reign of Richard the Second.

At Woodcote, in this parish, have been found many remains of antiquity; from which it is conjectured to have been a Roman station.

Camberwell is situated about three miles from Blackfriars bridge. The present church is supposed to have been built about the beginning of the reign of Henry the Eighth. The east window of the north aisle contains several portraits painted on glass, besides other devices. In the register of this parish,

for

for the year 1684, are recorded the names of such persons as were touched for the king's evil; a circumstance which our author has not observed in any other register.

This parish affords a remarkable instance of longevity, in the person of Elizabeth Jones, who died in November 1775, at the age of 125 years.

Within this parish lies the hamlet of Dulwich, containing Dulwich college, of which, and its founder Edward Alleyn, the author gives a particular account.

The parish of Carshalton lies in the hundred of Wallington, about eleven miles from Westminster bridge, and three to the south of Croydon. The church stands on a rising ground near the centre of the village, and is supposed to have been erected in the reign of Richard the Second. This place was occasionally the residence of the famous statesman Sir Nicholas Throckmorton.

The parish of Cheam is situated likewise in the hundred of Wallington. The manor was granted by King Athelstan, in the year 1018, to the monks of Canterbury, and was exempted from the payment of all taxes, except for the repairing of bridges and fortresses, and defraying the expence of the king's expeditions. The grant concludes with the usual uncharitable anathema against any person who should presume to infringe it: 'Excommunicatus cum diabolo societur;' that is, in plain English, 'May he go to the devil.' It afterwards appears to have been divided; one moiety being called West Cheam, and held by the prior and convent of Canterbury; the other, East Cheam, with the advowson of the church, being the property of the archbishop.

Adjoining to the parish of Cheam is the site of the village of Cotington, which now no longer exists. Henry the Eighth, admiring the situation of this place, rebuilt the manor house, and converted it into a palace, called afterwards, from its splendour and magnificence, Nonfuch, which has been much celebrated both by English and foreign writers.

Clapham lies in the hundred of East Brixton, nearly four miles from Westminster bridge. This parish is supposed to have received its appellation from one of its proprietors. Osgod Clappa was the name of the Danish lord at whose daughter's marriage-feast, in Lambeth, Hardicanute died. In this place a mansion house, which was pulled down about thirty years since, was a very magnificent edifice. Some of the rooms were wainscotted with Japan; and a spacious gallery occupied the whole length of the house, both above and below stairs. It is said to have been built by Sir Denis Gauden, brother of the Bishop of Exeter, who wrote a treatise on artificial beauty, and

who was supposed by some to have been the author of King Charles's celebrated work called *EIKON BASILIKH*.

Croydon is a market town, situated ten miles south of London, and is supposed by some antiquaries to have been the *Novontagus* of the Romans. The manor of Croydon belonged to Archbishop Lanfranc, at the time of the conquest; and the palace, or manorial house, which is situated near the church, was for several centuries the occasional residence of the Archbishops of Canterbury. It seems probable, that James I. King of Scotland, then a prisoner in England, was under the custody of Archbishop Arundel at this place; there being extant a charter of his, by which he grants the barony of Drumlaerig to Sir William Douglas, dated at Croydon in 1412.

Kew. The most ancient record in which our author has seen this place mentioned, is a court-roll of the manor of Richmond, in the reign of Henry the Seventh. The late Prince of Wales, admiring the situation of Kew-House, took a long lease of it from the Capel family; and it is now held by his present majesty on the same tenure.

Kingston upon Thames is situated about eleven miles from Westminster bridge, and enjoys many valuable privileges and immunities by royal charter. This town was a celebrated place in the early periods of our history, and was made choice of as the place of their coronation by several of the kings. The church of Kingston consists of a nave, two aisles, and three chancels. No part of it appears to be older than the reign of Richard the Second.

The parish of Lambeth lies in the eastern division of Brixton, and is about sixteen miles in circumference. The earliest historical fact on record relating to Lambeth is the death of Hardicanute, which happened in the year 1041, whilst he was celebrating the marriage-feast of a noble Dane. He died suddenly during the entertainment; some say of poison, others of intemperance. The manor-house, or palace, belonging to the Archbishop of Canterbury, is a large pile of building, and exhibits the architecture of various ages. It appears that Lambeth palace was, in a great measure, if not wholly, rebuilt by Archbishop Boniface, about the year 1262. If any part of this structure now remains, it is the chapel, the architecture of which, indeed, might induce one to ascribe it to a more early period. The great hall was rebuilt by Archbishop Juxon, after the civil wars, upon the old model, and at the expence of 10,500*l*. It is ninety-three feet in length, and thirty-eight in breadth, with a Gothic roof of wood. The guard-room, which appears to have been built before the year 1424, is roofed like the hall, and is fifty-six feet long, and twenty-seven and an half wide.

wide. In this room is a whole length picture of Henry, Prince of Wales. The long gallery, built about the time of Cardinal Pole, is ninety feet in length, and sixteen in breadth. The wainscot remains in its original state, being all of mantled carving. In the great dining-room are portraits of all the archbishops, from Laud to the present time. In these may be observed the gradual change of the clerical dress, in the articles of bands and wigs. A large ruff anciently supplied the place of the former; Archbishop Tillotson was the first prelate who wore a wig, which then was not unlike the natural hair, and worn without powder. The library of manuscripts contains a valuable collection. In the garden, against the wall of the palace, are two vines of an extraordinary size, covering a surface of fifty feet in height, and forty in breadth. The trunk of the larger is twenty-eight inches in circumference. They are of the white sort, and bear very fine fruit.

Malden lies in the hundred of Kingston, in a retired situation between that town and Cheam. The church consists of a nave and chancel, which are separated by a wooden screen.

Morton lies about nine miles from London, upon the Epsom road. The manor of Morton, before the conquest, was the property of Earl Harold, and was afterwards held by the king in demesne. In the year 1115 a convent of wood was built at this place. Morton church was built early in the twelfth century, by Gilbert Norman, the founder of the abbey.

Mitcham lies in the hundred of Croydon, about nine miles from Westminster bridge. Here Sir Walter Raleigh had a house and estate in right of his wife; and a mansion, now an academy, still bears the name of Raleigh-House. The celebrated Dr. Donne resided at Mitcham two years, during which time he became so attached to the place, that he would have stayed in it for life, had it not been for the importunity of his friends. The nave of the church is separated from the aisles by octagonal pillars and pointed arches.

Morden lies ten miles from Westminster bridge, in the road to Epsom. In the east window of the church are the ten commandments painted on glass, with the figures of Moses and Aaron, and some mutilated pieces of scripture history.

Mortlake is situated on the banks of the Thames, nearly seven miles from Hyde Park corner. The church was built about the year 1348; but the only part now remaining which seems to be of the original structure, is the outward door of the bell-fry. Among eminent persons who have resided at Mortlake, is mentioned the celebrated Dr. Dee; who lived in the sixteenth century, and was often visited by Queen Elizabeth.

Newington Butts lies in the eastern division of Brixton hundred, at the distance of about a mile from London bridge. The parish is of very small extent, the only manor it contains being that of Walworth, now a hamlet to Newington, and the birth-place, probably, of the celebrated citizen who bore its name.

Petersham lies at the distance of about nine miles from Hyde Park corner. The manor, at the time of the conquest, belonged to the abbey of St. Peter at Chertsey; from which circumstance, it is probable, the place derived its name. The present church was erected in the year 1505. It consists of a nave, chancel, and two transepts, with a low tower on the west side.

Putney is situated on the banks of the Thames, at the distance of four miles from Hyde Park corner. This place has produced two eminent statesmen, Nicholas West, Bishop of Ely, and Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex. The former was the son of a baker, and the latter of a blacksmith. The church was first built as a chapel of ease to Wimbledon, some time after the conquest. It would be difficult to ascertain the age of the present structure, which exhibits the architecture of very different periods. It appears to have been, in a great measure, rebuilt in the reign of Henry VII.; the arches and clustered columns, which separate the nave from the aisles, are undoubtedly of that age. The north and south walls are of much higher antiquity, and, by the shape of some of the windows, might be thought coeval with the original structure. At the west end is a stone tower, which bears no certain criterion of the time at which it was erected.

Richmond is distinguished for its beautiful situation upon the banks of the Thames, at the distance of about eight miles from Hyde Park corner. This place received its present name by royal command, in the reign of Henry VII. who was Earl of Richmond in Yorkshire. Lands in the manor are held by the rod, or copy of court-roll, and descend to the youngest son; or, in default of sons, to the youngest daughter. The same customs prevail in the manors of Petersham and Ham. It is not certain when the manor-house at Sheen first became a royal palace. A manuscript record in the British Museum mentions it as having been the house of Henry I. who granted it, with the manor, to the Belets. From that time till towards the close of the reign of Edward I. it was the property of subjects. Edward I. and II. are known to have resided there. Edward III. closed a long and victorious reign at his palace at Sheen. Queen Anne, his successor's consort, died there in the year 1394. The king was so much affected at her death, that he abandoned the

the palace, and suffered it to fall to ruin, or, as others assert, pulled it down; but Henry V. restored the palace to its former magnificence.

Among the persons interred in Richmond church is James Thomson, Esq. buried August 29, 1748. The history and writings of this favourite poet are sufficiently known. The house in which he resided at Richmond was purchased after his death by George Ross, Esq. who, out of veneration to his memory, forbore to pull it down, but enlarged and improved it at the expence of 9,000*l*. It is now the property of the Hon. Mrs. Boscawen, who has repaired the poet's favourite seat in the garden, and placed by it the table on which he wrote. Over the entrance is inscribed, 'Here Thomson sung the seasons and their change.'

Rotherhithe lies on the banks of the Thames, about a mile and a half below London bridge. There are in this parish eleven dockyards, at some of which a considerable number of ships are built for the East-India service. The whole extent of the shore is inhabited by various artificers and tradesmen, who make and furnish rigging and provisions for the navy. The trench, said to be cut by Canute to besiege the city of London by water, began in this parish.

Streatham is situated on the road from London to Croydon, at the distance of somewhat more than five miles from Westminster bridge. The manor-house is large, but contains nothing remarkable. A tradition was prevalent in Salmon's time that it was one of Queen Elizabeth's palaces; but it seems to be founded on slight authority. A mineral water, of a cathartic quality, was discovered in this parish in the year 1660, which is still held in esteem. There are no accommodations for persons who come to drink it on the spot; yet the well is much resorted to by those who cannot afford a more expensive journey; and the water is sent in considerable quantities to some of the hospitals in London.

Sutton is situated upon the road to Reigate, about eleven miles from Westminster bridge. The downs adjoin those of Banstead, and are grazed by sheep. The mutton is noted for its small size and fine flavour. The church is a small structure, consisting of a nave and chancel. At the west end was a wooden tower, which has been lately taken down and rebuilt of brick.

Twoting is situated on the road to Epsom, about six miles from Westminster bridge. The church is a small structure, and consists of a nave, chancel, and south aisle. On the north side is a low circular tower, with a small spire.

Wandsworth lies on the road to Kingston, about five miles and a half from Westminster bridge. There are in this village several manufactories, which employ five or six hundred hands.

Wimbledon is situated about 7 miles from Hyde Park corner, being three miles south of Putney. The mansion at Wimbledon is mentioned among the houses belonging to the crown, in the inventory of Charles the First's jewels and pictures. It is worthy of remark, that this unfortunate monarch was so little aware of the fate preparing for him by his enemies, that, a few days before he was brought to trial, he ordered the seeds of some Spanish melons to be planted in his garden at Wimbledon. At the south-west angle of Wimbledon common is a circular encampment with a single ditch; it includes a surface of about seven acres; the trench is deep, and remains very perfect. Camden thinks that it was the site of a battle between Cezulin, King of the West Saxons, and Ethelbert, King of Kent, in which the latter was defeated, and which is said to have been fought in the year 568.

It is proper to inform our readers that the present work contains a brief description of the situation, soil, produce, and manufactures, of the different parishes; the descent of the principal, particularly manerial property; the parish churches, and ecclesiastical history; as well as the state of population, and the biography connected with each parish. On the whole, it may be regarded as a faithful statistical account of the environs of London; containing much to gratify curiosity, and not a little of more useful information. It is printed on a fine paper, and ornamented with a number of engravings.

Art. IX. *The proposed Reform in the Representation of the Counties of Scotland considered.* By Robert Ferguson, Esq. of Lincoln's-Inn. pp. 52. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. London, 1792.

IT would give us unfeigned pleasure to see as ardent zeal for a moral, as there is at present for a political reform. We should then observe characters improved, although governments remained the same. But these things depend not on us. There are certain causes which influence the pursuits of individuals and of nations, and which, from the powerful energy of an overruling Providence, direct the attention of men to particular subjects. By means of certain events which lately took place, the thoughts of every person of reflection, through every country in Europe, have been led to investigate the nature and design of civil government: and great numbers have loudly claimed the reformation

reformation of abuses, which, through length of time and other causes that throw no particular blame on the present rulers of the world, have insensibly crept into every state in Christendom. Reform may be justly considered as the order of the day; and it is highly probable that no human devices, however plausible and promising they may appear, will be able to put it aside, perhaps not even to postpone it for a season. A numerous host of writers have taken the field to assert the right of the people (as they term it) to an alteration in the English government by the removal of those abuses which are said to disfigure it. Here is an advocate for a reform of the representation in Scotland; and, if his statement be just, it appears exceedingly necessary.

In the historical sketch which is here given of the ancient Scottish parliament, we find that, by an act passed in 1425, 'Every freeholder was bound to appear in person, and not by proxy, unless a sufficient cause should be given for his absence. This being found burdensome and expensive to the smaller barons and freeholders, it was enacted in 1427, only two years afterwards, that small barons and freeholders need not come to parliament, but are to send from each shieriffdom two representatives, called commissaries, or commissioners of shires.' Thus stood the county election laws for Scotland till the time of James the Sixth. Every freeholder was admitted to give his vote for his representative, however small the value of his freehold. A statute in 1587 changed the state of the representation much to the detriment of the people. It enacts that no freeholder, unless such as possessed a forty shilling land (old extent), should have a right to vote. Matters were rendered worse by an act of Charles the Second in 1681; and the representation was rendered still more defective by a statute of the 16th of George the Second.

At present the members for the counties in Scotland are chosen by an inconsiderable number of great landed proprietors, by those who have a wadset, or life-rent, of lands; by very many persons who do not possess land, but what is called a superiority; and by a numerous body of men who have neither property in land nor superiority, but who, by a certain mode of managing here explained, acquire, for the occasion, fictitious votes. From the circumstance of the superiority being separated from the possession of the estate, and the vote following the superiority, we are told that 'proprietors of several thousands a year may perhaps not possess a single vote upon their estates.' In short, so deplorable, according to this gentleman, is the state of the county representation in Scotland, that he assures us 'it is a fact perhaps little known, but which I can assert from having examined the rolls of the different counties,

'counties, that, at the last general election, about seven hundred individuals returned a majority of the representatives of the landed interest of Scotland. Of these seven hundred, perhaps one fourth were not real proprietors, and one half, most probably, held their votes from peers and other great men.' If this be a true state of the case, every one must acknowledge the necessity of a reform.

The reform which Mr. Ferguson wishes to introduce consists of two parts: the reduction of the qualification to 100*l.* Scots, which brings down the right of voting to those who have an estate now of about fifty pounds a year: and the right of voting to be vested in the proprietor, not in the superior of lands. These regulations may please one class of men, but they will displease two. They may please men of small estates, by giving them influence and weight; but they will displease the great, by taking their monopoly away. They will likewise displease those whose property does not amount to forty or fifty pounds a year; who may say, with a great deal of justice, 'Pray why should we be excluded, and denied the privilege of freeholders?'

To obviate the objections brought by the enemies of reform, he says,

'It has uniformly been found, that the times (however different in every respect from each other) were ill suited to reforms. In our day, when Mr. Pitt brought forward his plan for reforming the representation in the year 1782, it was dangerous even to deliberate on such a subject amid the din of arms. In 1783, 1784, and 1785, we were to be sure at peace; but novel and dangerous opinions had been spread, tending to discontent and sedition. The enemies of reform can never be at a loss for arguments. If we are at war, it will give our enemies an advantage; if we are at peace, the public tranquillity must not be disturbed. If we are flourishing, it will endanger our credit; if we are distressed, it will but aggravate our condition. It will serve only to shake that government which is already too feeble. These different modes of reasoning may each be used, as they are best suited to the season.'

The author of this well-written pamphlet deserves great praise for his moderation and candour, and for his warm attachment to the British constitution, as consisting of king, lords, and commons, in opposition to the new-fangled systems of some of our speculative politicians. He justly acknowledges that the present ministry are not the cause of the corrupt and imperfect state of the Scottish representation. We hope they will be entitled to the honour and praise of having introduced and patronised a reform. Their own good sense must have taught them, that, in an age of light and knowledge, there is no way

of ruling mankind but by keeping them in good humour, and complying with their reasonable requests in proper time. The people of Great-Britain may be led; but woe to the man who shall attempt to drive them.

ART. X. *A Letter to the Right Rev. Richard Hurd, D. D. Lord Bishop of Worcester; wherein the Importance of the Prophecies of the New Testament, and the Nature of the Grand Apostasy predicted in them, are particularly and impartially considered. By Edward Evanston, A. M. The Second Edition. pp. 136. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. London, 1792.*

THE author of this letter to Dr. Hurd gives us the following account of it in a preface :

It is now fifteen years since the first edition of the following letter was published. At that time the author took particular care to have a printed copy of it delivered not only to the right reverend bishop to whom it is addressed, who then presided over the diocese of Lichfield and Coventry, but also to every other bishop with whom, as a beneficed minister of the established church, he conceived himself in any wise connected. Yet no answer to it hath hitherto been attempted; nor any kind of notice taken of it by the learned prelate himself, who, from his having made the prophecies of scripture his especial study, as well as by his eminently distinguished abilities, was peculiarly qualified to refute and expose any falsehood or futility that might be contained in the author's arguments; nor by any other of that numerous body of clergy, who, in all propriety, should be both able and willing to defend the orthodox system to which they adhere, against every serious, important attack. Concluding, therefore, that the apparently unnoticed work of an obscure individual could be but of little use, not worth the expence of reprinting it, when his bookseller, three years ago, informed him that it was necessary to prepare a second edition, unless he chose it should be out of print, because he had scarce any copies remaining, the author paid no attention to it. Since then, however, he has learned, that though unanswered, it has been so far from being unnoticed, that the force of its main arguments has had no inconsiderable share of influence in inducing some, even of the established clergy, as it had done the author himself, to resign their preferments, and relinquish the ministry for which they had been educated; and being assured that many very respectable persons who have inquired for it have expressed a disappointment at not being able to procure it, he has at length consented to its republication.

Surely, Mr. Evanston, the bishops are not obliged to answer every pamphlet that the *cacothres scribendi* may address to their lordships. Are they not better employed in the laborious pursuit

pursuit of painful theological studies; in watching over, with paternal anxiety, the clergy of their diocese; and in preserving and defending the purity of the excellent institutions of our church? Mr. Evanston is a strenuous Socinian, and a determined enemy to religious establishments, as highly injurious to true Christianity. Even the protestant established churches he considers as members of antichrist, which must be destroyed by the brightness of the coming of the Son of Man. The worship of our blessed Redeemer is, in his judgment, the great mystery of iniquity in the Christian church predicted by the apostles. That Mr. Evanston is a very honest and conscientious man, his conduct in resigning a living in the church clearly demonstrates; but a man may be very honest and conscientious, and not be in the right. Saul of Tarsus thought that he ought to do many things against the name of Jesus of Nazareth.

ART. XI. *The History of the Revolution of France. Translated from the French of M. Rabaud de Saint Etienne. pp. 330. 8vo. 5s. boards. Debrett. London, 1792.*

OF all the events which have taken place in Europe for centuries past, there is not one that can be compared to the French revolution. The field is so vast, the change is so great, and the consequences likely to be so extensive and important, that every reflecting mind must be arrested by the magnitude of the object. While men of narrow views and limited conceptions fix their eyes on particular parts, and being shocked at the excesses of the mob, or the cruelties of individuals, reprobate the whole, the philosopher takes a wider range, and his penetrating eye examines the complexion and temper of the whole system. None bewail more bitterly than he the horrid scenes of barbarity that have appeared; but astonished that those who complain of the conduct, do not reflect that more have frequently lost their lives in a single battle that was attended with no good consequences to either party, his mind is filled with the causes, the design, the spirit, of the revolution, the constitution that has been formed, and the influence which it is likely to have on the manners and conduct of the people of France, on the political character of the other European nations, and on the future happiness of mankind.

To have a distinct and impartial account of this surprising event by a person of sufficient information, and possessing the talents requisite to develop the whole, is a desideratum at the present time. A Frenchman is to be wished for in preference to an Englishman, because he must be more thoroughly acquainted

acquainted with the subject; and if he were a member of the Constituent Assembly, so much the better. All these qualities are united in Rabaud de St. Etienne, the author of this book. He was a representative in the first National Assembly; and consequently had the best opportunities of attaining every kind of information that was requisite. The book gives us a high idea of his talents; and, from the whole strain of his narration, every reader must entertain a very favourable opinion of his impartiality and candour.

Rabaud was the son of a venerable protestant minister, who, at the period of the revolution, had attained the ninetieth year of his age. During the former reign the good old man had been forced for twenty years to hide himself from the fury of his persecutors in the mountains of the Cevennes. His son was universally acknowledged to be a man of talents and of science; and of so great repute was he at Nismes, his native city, that when the representatives for that district were chosen in 1789, they refused to accept the appointment till Rabaud was first elected as their coadjutor. His conduct in the Constituent Assembly was such as to entitle him to the character of one of the most distinguished patriots of France, and one of her most enlightened citizens; nor will his name lose any thing of its celebrity by this publication. It displays him to great advantage, as a man of deep penetration, of extensive views, of quick and nice discernment, of great humanity and benevolence, and full of ardent zeal for the welfare of his country. He traces the corruption of the old government, and the causes of the new, with a masterly hand; and shows us the dreadful abuses which had been growing for ages, and those vast heaps of political iniquity which were now become full and could be no longer borne. We have likewise an interesting view of the progress of the revolution, and the Herculean labours of the representatives of the people. He draws out, with great clearness, the obstacles which were thrown in their way from the beginning; obstacles which continued to the conclusion; obstacles which considerably obstructed their progress, and which they were enabled but partially to surmount. So carefully has the author omitted all extraneous matter, and so judiciously and skilfully has he compressed his ideas, that in this small volume there is more substance than we frequently meet with in books of six times the size. A few specimens of his manner of writing will, we are persuaded, be agreeable to every reader. He describes the state of France, previous to the revolution, in the following terms:

The French nation, hath for several centuries been subject to arbitrary laws, which lay heavy at once on the lives and the fortunes of the citizens. The people, which is every thing in free states, and

and nothing in despotic empires, was enslaved by such a multitude of particular tyrannies, that its purest substance was dissipated in imposts levied by violence, or by address, or by superstition, or by privileges. The kings of France alone levied taxes to a greater amount than many mighty princes of Europe united. The clergy reaped, free of all expences, the fifth of the nett produce of the territorial revenues of the kingdom. They possessed, moreover, immense estates, and contributed nothing but gratuitous gifts, which it imposed on itself at pleasure. The humiliating rights of the feudal system gave the nobles a kind of revenue, which was a real impost upon agriculture, and a source of innumerable vexations; and although possessed of prodigious property, they considered themselves as exempted from contributing any thing to the public charges, the weight of which fell altogether upon the people. A host of privileged and ennobled persons had obtained or purchased from despotic power the right of not contributing to the expences of the state. The venality of offices had rendered justice venal of course; and every law-suit was likewise an impost; a disastrous contribution, because it not only tied the fortunes of the litigants, but frequently devoured them.

Meanwhile the apparent facility with which the people paid such considerable impositions, encouraged government to invent new ones. The expences of the court were arbitrary, and the substance of the Plebeian order was, by long established custom, squandered away upon the most pompous frivolity. The throne was besieged by a multitude of craving men, and self-interested women, upon whom, under various pretences, the treasures of the state were lavished. Destructive wars, undertaken with levity, and often for the sole advantage of a few individuals, had been for two entire reigns accumulating the public calamities. Distressing loans had successively created an enormous debt; and the nation, affrighted at the condition of the finances, had nothing before her eyes but the discouraging prospect of bankruptcy.

It is necessary to acquaint strangers, into whose hands this brief and rapid history may fall, that among us was sold the exclusive right of exercising such and such professions; and that this right became a title. Patents were made for carrying on the trade of a peruke-maker, of a coal-meter, of a searcher of hogs tongues; and these callings became exclusive; they were termed privileges. The rich purchased them as a speculation, and sold them to advantage. A certain financier had in his portfolio thirty patents for peruke-makers, which were bought of him at a high price by persons dwelling in the remotest provinces. Besides that, this low kind of speculation changed the character of a people, where every thing even to honour, was become venal; these new-created offices were all so many indirect taxes, for the purchaser never failed to make the public reimburse him. It was injurious to industry, since, in order to exercise a profession, it was not necessary to have talents for it, but to be rich already, or to borrow in order to become rich. In fine, it was an additional burthen to the state, which paid the salary or the interest

interest of every office that was sold. The number of them was enormous. A person who was employed to count them, and who grew weary of the task, ventured to estimate them at above three hundred thousand. Another calculated, that, in the space of two centuries, the people had been burthened with more than an hundred millions of new taxes, solely for the purpose of paying the interest of those offices. This was evident when the Constituting Assembly, always cutting deep, and destroying each abuse at the root, decreed the reimbursement of offices. Every day new patents were seen starting from obscurity, and it was seen that it would prove impossible to liquidate them, except in the course of time.

The obstacles in the way of a reform in the French government were truly formidable. M. Rabaud says that

By the long duration and the accumulation of abuses, there was formed in the heart of the nation a second nation, particular and privileged; it was a confederacy of all those whose life and existence depended on the abuses. This new nation lived at the expence of the old one. But its inevitable coalition obstructed every project of reformation; the minister who should have attempted it would have been soon displaced. M. Turgot, who wished to do it all at once, was decried, and obliged to retire. M. Necker desired to take his time and work insensibly; but a peaceful administration of fifty years, without wars, and without wants, would have proved insufficient for the undertaking. So prodigious an attempt was above the means and abilities of any single person; nothing but the entire nation could be equal to a deed so bold; and we have all seen what dangers were incurred by the Constituting Assembly, and by the public interests in so awful and alarming a shock. In fact, what an astonishing combination would a minister, nay a monarch, have had to combat! Sixty thousand nobles, possessed of all the connexions of the feudal system, and that host of dependents which was fed by them; those of the military profession all noble, or, what is worse, pretending to nobility; a hundred thousand privileged persons, all leagued to support their prerogative of not paying such or such an impost; two hundred thousand priests, very unequal indeed as to income, but all united in one common system, all forming but one whole, directing at their pleasure the women and the rabble, and accustomed for a thousand years to govern the empire by opinion and by prejudices; fifty thousand persons leading a monastic life, and many of whom still powerfully influence that world which they had made a solemn vow to renounce; the farmers general, all the agents of the revenue, with their army of fifty thousand men, and that multitude of persons in office, even in the most inconsiderable towns, and their families and their friends; finally, all those belonging to the long robe, those parliaments, rivals of kings, that is to say, of their power, protecting or sacrificing the people for their own aggrandisement, and who from being judges aspired to become legislators; the inferior courts, which were in subordination to the parliaments; and that swarm of practitioners, who, all taken together, levied a tax upon the kingdom

which

which the imagination is afraid to calculate. This formidable mass of men was in possession of all France; they held her by a thousand chains; they formed, in a body, what was called *la haute nation*; and all the rest was the people. These are the persons whom we have since seen uniting their voices and their clamours against the National Assembly, because with a resolution and courage unexampled, it hath suppressed all the abuses on which they depended for their existence.

After reading these paragraphs we need not be surprised at the violent opposition that was made to the French revolution; from the beginning to the end; and we see here the cause of that implacable enmity to the new order of things by multitudes of Frenchmen, both within and without the kingdom. Our author is likewise of opinion that many of the excesses committed in France, during the sitting of the Constituent Assembly, arose solely from them, and were fomented by their instigation and influence. He does not extol the constitution so highly as many of his countrymen; but he thinks that, considering the constant opposition that was thrown in the way of every measure of the friends of liberty, it is the best that it was possible for them to make; and that, in spite of every endeavour to demolish the new-raised fabric, it will stand. With respect to the prospect that France presented to the neighbouring nations during the sitting of the Constituent Assembly, he says, 'Common observers have beheld nothing in this astonishing spectacle but men combating men with all the cruelty of civil rage, and passions contending with passions. But the enlightened of every country have easily perceived that ours was the cause of the whole human race; and they looked forward with anxious hearts to the final issue of such a contest.'

To this history M. Rabaud has subjoined sixty-three political reflections, which, he says, presented themselves to his mind, but which the brevity and rapidity of the relation would not suffer him to insert in the body of the work. Some of them are very curious, as the following specimen will shew; the justness of them we leave our readers to determine:

'In general, a new truth requires thirty years at least to be established among a numerous people, when that people is calm and unimpassioned. Before it hath resounded several times in every ear, before it hath roused the indolent, struck the inattentive, converted the obstinate and the superstitious, which is the same thing, and unmasked hypocrisy, the generation hath passed away. But in extraordinary junctures, and when two opinions jostle, that which is the true one is proclaimed so loudly and so forcibly, that it makes rapid progress; it is strengthened by contradiction, and propagated by the passions; one year of war does more for its success than a century would at other times.

* It happens also, that as a truth never goes alone, but is attended with a train of consequences, contradiction, which, as we all know, strikes out new flashes of light, calls up from the abyss of darkness truths of which one should not otherwise have thought so soon; so that the enemies of a truth find themselves overwhelmed with a throng of auxiliaries, who effectually put them to flight.

* It is possible that all the kings of Europe may form a coalition against an humble page of writing; but after a number of cannon shots, and when these potentates have destroyed three or four hundred thousand men, and laid waste twenty countries, it will not be the less true that *men are born and continue free and equal, as to their rights, and that the nation is the sovereign*: and it is possible that their obstinacy may have occasioned the discovery of other truths, which, but for the wrath of those great princes, mankind would never have thought of.

* We who are only the people, but who pay for war with our substance and with our blood, will not cease to tell kings, that to them alone wars are profitable; that wars are the amusements of princes, and yield pleasure to none but those that make them; that the true and just conquests are those which each makes at home, by comforting the peasantry, by promoting agriculture, by multiplying men and the other productions of nature: that thus alone it is that kings may call themselves the image of God, whose will is perpetually directed to the creation of new beings. If kings continue to fight and make us kill one another in uniforms, we will continue to write and speak, until nations shall be cured of this folly; and, should kings still persist, we will go to the field of battle, we will write our petition upon a heap of dead bodies, with the blood of the dying, and we will cause it to be presented by fifty thousand widows, and a hundred thousand orphans.

* The history of the revolution of France is a collection of prophecies.

Whether M. Rabaud considers these prophecies as now fulfilling, we do not know; but it is plain that the prophets in France did not understand the interpretation thereof. The events that have taken place since the Constituent Assembly finished its labours, are known to all. Time alone will discover whether the new constitution, prepared by the Convention, and to be submitted to the people, which is founded on the principles of liberty and equality, is to govern France, and the republic is to maintain its existence.

From the English dress of M. Rabaud's work we see that a considerable degree of justice is done to the original, which is remarkably elegant. Gallicisms very frequently appear. One species of them we particularly noticed, and recommend to the attention of Mr. White. When we describe events that have taken place, we, unless in some peculiar instances, always use the past tense of verbs; the French, on the contrary, use the present

present tense. When a translator continues in his English version the same tense that was in the original French, we feel a deviation from the genius of our language. On the whole, the book is very well translated. The notes, by the editor, might have been spared.

ART. XII. *Considerations on the present and future State of France.* By M. de Calonne, Minister of State. Translated from the French. pp. 508. 8vo. 6s. boards. Evans. London, 1791.

AT the time when M. de Calonne wrote these *Considerations*, France, though bleeding with the recent wounds of its monarchy, had not yet experienced those public convulsions which usually accompany any great revolution in government; and if it seemed not to have acquired a permanent constitution, it at least enjoyed, under its transient form of rule, an exemption from the horrors of anarchy. But this portentous calm was soon succeeded by the storms of faction; and liberty, the original object of the nation, is now only to be traced in the excesses of unbounded licentiousness. It would be a superfluous undertaking to delineate the state of France, as described by M. de Calonne in the year 1791: the baseless fabric has vanished; nor can any opinion be formed with greater certainty of the future, than that its devoted republic will expire, unregretted, amidst the general discontent of the nation, and the violence of civil discord.

The present work is introduced with the following exordium:

“ Ever since that memorable day on which the Assembly convened to restore life and vigour to the kingdom of France for the first time, I have attentively followed its deliberations, and never ceased to accompany them with my sincerest wishes for their success, until it became impossible for me to hope that they could terminate in any real good. I was alarmed when I perceived that, instead of labouring to reform and perfect, the representatives of the nation imagined they were appointed to destroy and new create every thing, that they overturned the edifice, the foundation of which it was their duty to strengthen; and that, when delegated only to amputate the corrupted parts, they hewed in pieces the whole body. I said to myself, Is it possible that men should be found so simple, and so rash, as entirely to overturn a constitution under which an empire has grown old with glory? Can they be so little versed in political science, as not to know that governments are formed and completed by time, but that they cannot be created at once?

Could I afterwards refrain from feeling that indignation which has increased from day to day in proportion as the progress of this destructive mania has shewn, that what ought to effect the happiness of my country has become the cause of its ruin; that a door has been opened to every crime and every mischief; that thousands of citizens have been oppressed, without procuring relief to the people; and that the benefactions of the king, turned against himself, have only been repaid by such an excess of ingratitude, that he has at length been ignominiously deprived of his crown?

Long have I endeavoured to persuade myself that those who have suffered the impetuosity of their ardent enthusiasm for liberty to hurry them beyond their aim, would soon see the necessity of measuring back the steps they had taken, as the lion returns on his prey, which he always overleaps at the first bound. But since a violence which spurns at all restraint has successively thrown down every boundary, and proceeded to the last extravagance of a system too essentially vicious to admit a hope of any amendment, I have felt, in the most forcible manner, the necessity of a speedy remedy; I have sought to discover that which would occasion the least convulsion; and the same sentiment which has impelled me to seek it, has imposed it on me as a duty to communicate my ideas. I do not disguise to myself either the danger of the undertaking, or the improbability of its success; but when our country is on the brink of ruin, it is incumbent on each of us to endeavour at least to render her every service of which he is capable; and at such a time, all the prudence of fear, and all the modesty of self-love, ought to give way to the obligation we are under to do every thing in our power that may possibly be attended with utility.

The subjects of which this author treats are: the finances; the constitutional decrees; the form of government; orders and intermediate ranks; right of making war and peace; liberty; property; the administration of justice; electoral assemblies; and statement of what is to be desired. On each of those heads M. de Calonne delivers his sentiments with that freedom which becomes a writer when deliberating on the most important interests of his country; and with that degree of information and political knowledge which qualified him for the high department he formerly occupied in the state. If the frenzy of popular illusion could be dissipated by the force of cool argument, France had, before this time, been reclaimed by the efforts of M. de Calonne and M. Neckar; but amidst the party violence of a few, and the enthusiasm of numbers, the voice of reason is extinguished; until irresistible force from abroad, and tyranny from within, shall ultimately awaken the nation to a sense of its own folly.

ART. XIII. *Tables of Logarithms of all Numbers from 1 to 101,000, and of the Sines and Tangents to every Second of the Quadrant. By Michael Taylor, Author of the Sexagesimal Table; with a Preface and Precepts for the Explanation and Use of the same, by Nevil Maskelyne, F. R. S. Astronomer Royal. pp. 400. Royal 4to. Four Guineas in Sheets. Wingrave. London, 1792.*

THE invention of logarithms is deservedly esteemed one of the greatest and happiest efforts of human genius. Like that of printing, it forms a very exalted step in the intellectual progress of the species. Like that art, too, it was obtained not by gradual advances, but by the bold excursion of a penetrating mind. The analogy extends even farther. Printing was, in thirty years, carried to its highest pitch of perfection; in an equal space of time the logarithmic tables were completed, and with such accuracy that, notwithstanding the great improvements afterwards made in the computation of them, it was found unnecessary to subject them to revision. The only alteration introduced is in the form of these tables, which has been rendered more commodious. When the trigonometrical lines were first calculated, the division of the arcs into degrees and minutes was sufficient for every common purpose. But the astonishing accuracy with which mathematical instruments are now executed demands much nicer operations. The imperfection of the tables must be supplied by proportional parts or interpolations, which are troublesome and tedious. The present work is therefore a valuable acquisition to the astronomer and navigator, and will greatly expedite their calculations. The author was exceedingly well qualified for the task. He had been many years employed as computer of the nautical almanac, and was very remarkable for his dexterity and accuracy in calculation. Of his enthusiasm in that occupation we meet with a singular instance: his son appears in the list of subscribers; his name John Napier Henry Briggs Michael Taylor, in imposing which Mr. Taylor has paid a compliment to the memory of the two great personages who invented and improved the logarithmic system. The tables now presented to the public were printed under the inspection of the author, who bestowed infinite pains in revising the proofs. Unfortunately he died when the last sheet was at the press. This, however, was carefully corrected by Dr. Maskelyne. The Astronomer Royal has likewise prefixed upwards of sixty pages of valuable matter. He has given a neat account of the nature, properties, and application, of logarithms to arithmetical questions, with full

full instructions for using Mr. Taylor's tables. He has shewn how to obviate the errors to which trigonometrical calculation is liable when the tabular differences of the sines become very small: he has treated at large of the general properties of plane and spherical triangles, and of the solutions of the different cases; and for greater perspicuity he has given practical rules adapted to Mr. Taylor's logarithmic tables. Fifteen curious problems are added, of which the solutions are derived chiefly from the angular calculus. He shews how to find the logarithms of the sum and difference of two numbers, and of the square roots of these; to solve quadratic and cubic equations, and extract the roots of the impossible binomial; and to calculate the height of mountains from barometrical observations. He gives a formula for determining the latitude and longitude of a celestial object from its right ascension and declination, and the reverse. In the last place, he has given a new and easy rule for ascertaining the true distance of the moon from the sun or star from apparent altitudes and distance; the fundamental problem in finding longitude at sea.

ART. XIV. *Travels through the Rhetian Alps in the Year 1786, From Italy to Germany through Tyrol. By Albanis Beaumont, in the Service of the King of Sardinia. The Work is ornamented with Ten large Aqua-Tinta Engravings, from original Designs, by the Author, relative to the picturesque Beauties of the most interesting Views.* pp. 82. Large Folio. 2l. 2s. boards, Egerton's. London, 1792.

THIS work commences with general observations on the origin and form of government of the city of Venice, from which place the author took his departure on the 26th of May, soon after the celebration of the annual ceremony, in which the Doge espouses the sea. The city of Venice attracts the attention of every traveller, not only by its wonderful situation, but the magnificence of its public buildings and palaces. Without detailing the historical account of this republic, which is continued by the author through several pages, we shall restrict ourselves to such circumstances as have been generally omitted by preceding travellers.

Mr. Beaumont observes, that the geologist will find many objects worthy of his attention, in examining the coast of the Adriatic, from the mouth of the Po to the gulf of Trieste. He will perceive, along the whole extent of that coast, and for five or six miles in the interior part of the country, that there are encroachments, made in the sea by a quantity of earth, pebbles,

and gravel, which have been carried, in the course of several centuries, by the most considerable rivers of Italy, which discharge themselves in the gulf, and may in time fill up the lagoons. These rivers, the author supposes with probability, have also been the original cause of the land-bank, called Lido, which is about forty miles in extent, and nearly separates Venice from the gulf.

Mr. Beaumont having a curiosity to ascertain the different strata of the earth, he was let down into a pit which they were digging between Lizza Fuffina and Oriago. He remarked that the strata inclined towards the sea, forming an angle of fifteen degrees and a half. He reckoned fifteen perfectly distinct, and was convinced that they were formed of the different decompositions of the primitive and secondary mountains, and that the sediments were not placed according to their gravity; for there were strata composed of small stones, called Gallet, mixed with pieces of granite, quartz, schist, and a peculiar kind of calcareous stone, forming a bed at two thirds of the height of the pit, thirteen inches in thickness, entirely supported by different strata of sand. The grain of one of them was particularly fine, mixed with particles of mica and granite, intermixed with maritime and fluviatic shells, which formed the seventh stratum, and is a clear proof that the sea formerly overflowed that country. But as the vegetable earth was nearly eleven inches in thickness, it may justly be supposed to have remained in its present state for many centuries. It is to be wished that such observations could be followed with some degree of accuracy, in several places round the coast, as it would be of infinite service in the study of geology.

On the north of Venice are situated the Rhetian Alps, which lose themselves among the chain of mountains that cross the country of the Grisons. Opposite, and in a direct line, are those of Friuli, whose summits are always covered with snow: they join those of Carniola and Istria, which appear lost in the horizon. That vast chain of mountains, near one hundred leagues in extent, is, nevertheless, but a small part of the Alps, and not much known by our naturalists, though worthy of being investigated.

On leaving Lizza Fuffina, the traveller was towed up the river Brenta to Padua. The banks of the river are beautiful, affording the most pleasing and interesting views. Sometimes it is seen meandering across fertile and extensive meadows, enamelled with flowers, and covered with cattle. In other places it appears as lost, being concealed by tufts of trees, which covered it from side to side, forming a delightful harbour. There are also interspersed several beautiful villas and rich farms.

The

The low chain of the Treverian mountains, viewed from the environs of Padua, appear as if placed by nature to relieve the eye from a continual scene of the frozen summits of the Tridentine Alps, which are always covered with snow. The effect, our author observes, is wonderfully pleasing; for the Treverian mountains being not only cultivated, but wooded to the top, conceal by those means the base of the retiring mountains, and throw over them that equivocal veil in which the eye so much delights; forming a contrast so harmoniously blended; that, on a fine summer's day, it exhibits one of the most beautiful and picturesque landscapes imaginable.

The city of Padua, or Patavium, is of great antiquity, and boasts an origin even prior to that of Rome, whom she frequently assisted in the wars against the Boii, the Senones, and the Cenomani. This place, which formerly contained two hundred thousand inhabitants, can scarcely boast at present of more than forty thousand, though its soil is reckoned one of the most healthy and fertile in all Italy, and its situation is so well calculated for commerce, being watered by the rivers Brenta and Bacchiglione, which are both navigable.

The university of Padua has been considered as one of the most ancient in Europe, and was also esteemed one of the best. In its records are mentioned at one time upwards of ten thousand students, though at present there are scarcely nine hundred. The same number of professors as at its first institution, which are sixty, and most of them men of great learning. Its decline is therefore attributed to the weakness of those who are at the head of the police, as they indulge the students in unbridled licentiousness, which is carried to such a pitch of insolence, that no person, whether inhabitant or stranger, can with safety venture out after dusk.

Abano, which is only five miles from that city, is doubtless the same place which Pliny names Fontes Patavini, as there are in its neighbourhood several hot springs, of different qualities, the greater part sulphurated, and resorted to for various complaints. The heat of some of those springs is so great as to raise Fahrenheit's thermometer, in general, to 110 degrees. At first our author, not meeting with any basalt, or other volcanic production, ascribed the heat of these waters entirely to the decomposition of some pyrites, occasioned by the moisture which must naturally filtrate in abundance through the pores of the *lapis malaris*; but, in the prosecution of his researches, he was satisfied that the country had formerly contained volcanos, as most of the summits of those hills are formed of volcanic productions.

We are under the necessity of being concise in our account of these Travels, as the places which the author visited have mostly been described by other writers, though, we think, neither so accurately nor completely as by Mr. Beaumont.

Monte Summano, in the neighbourhood of Vicenza, merits the attention of the traveller, there being many curious plants and medals found on it, besides several other relics of antiquity. It is the received opinion, that formerly on that mount there was a temple dedicated to Pluto. The famous cave of Cusioza must not be passed over: it is nearly four thousand feet long, three thousand broad, and almost three miles in circumference. The roof of this immense cave is supported by one thousand huge pillars, cut out of the quarry, of three perches square. Many wonderful stories are told of this cavern; but it is only the remains of a quarry left from the digging of stone, which had been employed in the ancient buildings of Padua and Vicenza.

The places next in the author's rout are Verona, Trent, Botzen, Brixen, and Sterzing, &c. The author, with great fatigue, travelled to the foot of the glacier of Stuben, where the torrent Pflersch flows rapidly from beneath a cavern of ice, forming nearly half an elliptical figure; the entrance being nineteen feet wide, and the height thirty. The pyramids of ice which surrounded the cave, were upwards of fifty feet high, rising majestically one behind the other, in the form of an amphitheatre, extending to the top of the glacier, which is 250 feet above the source of the torrent. The traveller afterwards proceeded to a much greater height, but the cold was intolerable; occasioned, as he supposes, by the great quantities of ice, which abound more in the Rhetian than in the Pennine Alps. He could neither discover plants, shrubs, animals, or insects, except two butterflies, at too great a distance from him to judge of their species.

The author, proceeding through Tyrol, reaches Inspruck, and afterwards arrives at Fussen, in Swabia, which terminates the narrative.

We cannot conclude our brief account of these Travels without acknowledging that they contain much interesting description, as well as a variety of judicious observations on the places through which the author passed. But what claims no less attention is, the uncommon magnificence of the work, and the beauty of the picturesque engravings, which are executed upon a scale far beyond the usual proportion in productions of this kind.

ART. XV. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity.* Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Volume X. pp. 502. 4to. 1l. 1s. White. London, 1792.

IN a work like the present, in which every author pays his club, and contributes to the entertainment, we must expect a great diversity, and a considerable difference in the dishes. Some will be strong and substantial, a sirloin of beef, or a saddle of mutton. Others will be elegant and delicate, an ortolan or a beccafico. And others again will be light and petty, a sylabub, a jelly, or an icederum. With such a full-furnished table before us, on which shall we begin first? We are in some measure precluded from the discretion of choosing, by the very order in which the dishes are arranged. We must notice them all, but we will feast only upon such as are most agreeable to our taste.

I. *Observations on the Situation of the ancient Portus Itius.* By the Rev. Mr. Lyon, F. A. S.

The design of this essay is to do what has been done repeatedly before, to fix the celebrated harbour of Cæsar's at Boulogne. Here Cluver, Scaliger, Berger, Sanson, Semner, and Gibson, have equally fixed it. Nor does Mr. Lyon add one grain in the scale to the weight of their testimony. His essay is loosely written, and feebly directed, the effort of a mind lost in its own indistinctness of ideas, and only serving to perplex his reader's. We say not this, from any disrespect to Mr. Lyon, who has sometimes instructed and frequently pleased us; but to do justice to antiquarian literature in general, and to prevent the publication of such flimsy dissertations again. We have not time to answer this dissertation on the main point, or we could (we are persuaded) effectually refute it. We can only stop to point out two or three errors in it, that are very gross. 'If I may be indulged in a conjecture,' says Mr. Lyon, 'I think the resort of many of those who came to Whitland, was entirely owing to *Louis the Young* [he means, *Lewis the Younger*], King of France, embarking at it, when he came on a pilgrimage to Thomas of Canterbury, and praying on his passage, that there might not be any person shipwrecked between the two ports [Whitland and Dover]. In an age of superstition and ignorance, the prayer of this king might be thought sufficient, to place the passage under the protection of the saint, and the monks might favour the imposition.' This is said in all the weakness of popular prejudice. A stroke at a monk, or a gibe upon a saint, are the fashionable seasonings of vulgar humour.

And

And we need only add, that Du Fresne has shewn the passage between Witland and Dover, to have been the ordinary course *some hundreds of years before the prayer was uttered*. His first proof is as early as about A.D. 566, his next is in 933, five others come prior to the conquest, and thirteen more succeed prior to the prayer of Lewis*. So negligently has Mr. Lyon read, or so inattentively has he thought, upon the subject! 'Is there any place on the continent,' he asks at the close, 'so likely to have been the Portus Iccius of Julius Cæsar, as the valley at Boulogne? As he sailed from the very best port in the province, it would be a reflection on those who came after him, to suppose they sailed from a worse.' With such a whipt syllabub are we here treated, the Irishman's *huge nothing*! 'That they did not sail' from a worse, 'is very certain by the roads and the works [he means, only the roads] of the Romans, terminating at Boulogne—; neither have I read of any being yet discovered to the eastward of it.' The management of this concluding argument, is striking. Mr. Lyon is 'very certain' at first, but at last sinks into a reference to his own reading. The fact is, that both Witland and Boulogne have 'roads of the Romans,' though Mr. Lyon has 'never read' of any at the former. 'Neque verum est,' says Du Fresne, an author whom he appears to have read, and certainly ought to have remembered, 'vias Romanorum Bononicæ finisse, cùm a Bononiâ ad Wiffandum deducebantur; quæ ad hoc etiam tempus integræ remanent, vulgò *viâ strata* sive *strata de Brunebaut* vocitatur†.' But enough of this. Only let us warn the reader, that either the author or the printer have disfigured *Volusenus* into *Volusensus*, *Ambleuse* into *Combleuse*, and *Rutupis* into *Rutupia*. And, that we may take our leave of Mr. Lyon in as much good-humour as we can, we shall lay one passage before our readers for their information. 'The light-house built by the Romans on the hill at Dover,' he says, 'is similar to that which they built at Boulogne, for it is an octagon without, and a square within, and it is very probable they were both erected within a few years of each other, and with the same kind of materials. But, that I might not proceed entirely upon conjecture, I employed a person last summer to examine the remaining rubbish of the old Pharos at Boulogne, and to bring me over a piece or two, if he could find any of the materials left, like what I gave him to direct his search. The piece he

* Caroli Du Fresne *Dissertatio de Portu Iccio*, published in Latin with other works by Edmund Gibson. Oxonii, 1694, p. 106-112.

† Gibson, 95—96.

‘brought me, and which I have in my possession, is what the fossilists call Tophus, and it was with this kind of petrefaction the Romans built the walls of the light-house in Dover Castle, which is perhaps, without exception, one of the oldest buildings in the kingdom, but now going very fast to decay for want of a little repair, which might preserve it another century.’

II. *Derbiesseira Romana.* By the Rev. Mr. Pegge.

This essay, with the barbarous title from the rude Latinity of the law, is calculated to enumerate all the Roman remains discovered in Derbyshire; under the eight heads, of lead, roads, stations, camps, urns, coins, inscriptions, and barrows. It is therefore a table of reference, to former discoveries; rather than an account of any new. Yet it contains some of the latter. The whole, however, carries little light of information. Nor does one ray of genius dart across the whole. We have even a language in one word at least, as rude and barbarous as the title. ‘Adhering again closely to the subjects,’ cries the author, ‘I shall not excur beyond the known limits of the county.’ We have also a strange *gossiping* of thought. He draws up his arguments *en potence*, and then he forms his conclusions *en dernier lieu*, thus: ‘whence it is most evident’—what—? ‘that this tract became known to the Romans, very soon after they had gained any settlement in the island.’ So, a little before, we hear that ‘the Romans, who first entered this quarter, mixed (we may suppose) with the natives, so that the body of the people consisted of Britons and some few Romans intermingled with them.’

‘*Hamlet.* There’s ne’er a villain, dwelling in all Denmark,
But he’s an arrant knave.

‘*Her.* There needs no ghost, my lord, come from the grave
To tell us this.

‘*Ham.* Why right; you are i’t the right:
And so, without more circumstance at all,
I hold it fit, that we shake hands, and part.

III. *Observations on Canterbury Cathedral.* By the Rev. Mr. Deme.

This is designed partly to set right ‘Mr. Ledwick, in his ingenious, and in many, *nostro pericula* read a few, ‘instances satisfactory observations upon ancient churches, published in ‘*Archæologia*, Vol. VIII.’ and reviewed by us in September 1789, &c.; and partly to explain some circumstances in the structure of the cathedral. The dissertation is too local in itself, requires

requires too much of local knowledge, and refers too often to former writers and their ideas, without expressing them, to gratify our curiosity, or even engage our attention. We shall select the only passage, that strikes upon our mind at all. 'In the appendix to the same volume of *Archæologia*, p. 445, Mr. Barrington has noticed the gloominess of the undercroft at Canterbury, and offered an opinion concerning the purposes, for which this and similar apartments were constructed in churches.' But what this opinion is Mr. Denne never tells us. He gives us his own, however, some time afterwards. 'We are informed,' he then adds, 'that the crypt at Canterbury was made in imitation of the confessionary of St. Peter's church at Rome.' The information is Edmer's; his words are these, as cited by Mr. Denne five pages before, '*subtus erat ad instar confessionis Sancti Petri fabricata*;' and Mr. Denne has properly rendered the main term, *confessionary*. 'And from this we may collect the original use of undercrofts, and from what circumstance they acquired the appellation of Confessionaries. When a church was built over the grave of a martyr or confessor,' Mr. Denne meaning plainly one and the same character, and not designing to distinguish between the confessor and the martyr, 'it was after the Greeks termed a martyr, and after the Latins a *confessionary*. These names were afterwards adopted, when churches were only erected in memory of persons of this class,' that is, martyrs; 'and when it became a practice to preserve and venerate their relics, and to dedicate altars in honour of them, the relics were placed near, under, or within the altars. Edmer mentions an altar in the crypt at Canterbury, in which, according to an ancient tradition, was enclosed the head of St. Furseus, founder of the monastery of Burgh Castle in Suffolk, about the year 630;' who, however, was certainly no martyr at all*! So inconsequential is this gentleman's reasoning!—'In these crypts there might, in general, be light sufficient, for the celebration of divine rites; and, in compliance with the superstition of the age, there were lamps burning at the several altars.' These lamps, however, were not designed for illumination, but reverence; and were kept burning at the altars of the church above, and by day as well as by night. The real cause of the present darkness, we believe, is one more obvious and plain, the actual rising of the ground in the cathedral yard, above the windows of the undercroft. Even Mr. Denne, however inconsistently, has previously suggested this reason. 'The French church,' which

* See Bedæ, Hist. iii. 19. Smith.

we know to be in the undercroft, 'is, however, less lightsome than it was formerly, in consequence of the ground without 'it being considerably raised.'

IV. *Some Observations on the Paintings in the Window of Brereton Church.* By the Rev. Mr. Pegge.

Mr. Brereton in Archæ. IX. 368—369, had exhibited a coloured drawing of this window, and presented a short explanation of the figure in it. He had said four figures represented the four persons, who slew Thomas à Becket; had given their names from the scrolls below them; had alledged a fifth figure in the center-compartment, to be named equally on a scroll the martyr Thomas; and had noticed three figures in-as many compartments above, to be 'two priests, and between them a figure 'episcopally habited, most probably intended for Becket himself.' Mr. Pegge now comes after him, finds the four persons to be—what Mr. Brereton has made them; recites their names and the inscriptions from him, but recites them inaccurately, *Tracig* for *Traci*, *Aici* for *Hici*, *Mertelius* for *Murteliu*., *Figri* for *Fitri*, and *Centum* for *Centeno*; refers to the scroll under Thomas, as if it had never been noticed before; and thinks the middle figure above, not to be Becket, but the bishop of the diocese at the time of making the window, and the two side-figures to be St. Chad the patron of the diocese, and St. Oswald the patron of the parish. In this mode of repeating what has been said before, and appropriating to himself what belongs to another, does an author exercise the arts of authorship, and dissertations are multiplied, to no possible use or benefit. The only points which are Mr. Pegge's own, except his explanation of the figures in the upper compartments, are these, 'that this 'window, representing the tragical end of Becket, cannot be 'supposed to rise any higher than—the canonization of that saint, 'A.D. 1172,' *Dignus Vindice Nodus*; and that, in the centre-figure of the martyr below, 'by a most wonderful incongruity, 'repugnant to all history, he is pourtrayed with his sword drawn, 'and clad in armour,' when the incongruity is only in Mr. Pegge's mis-apprehension. The scroll below fixes the military figure decidedly to be Thomas, and exhibits him in the earlier period of his life, when he led 700 knights into the field, when 'iplemet lorica indutus et galea,' just as he is in the window, he stormed three castles at the head of his men, when he additionally enlisted 'mille ducentos stipendiarios milites,—quatuor 'millio servientium, per unam quadragenam,' and when he unhorsed Engelram de Tria, a French knight, with his own hand*.

The painter exhibits this part of his life, just as his biographer does*. And the figure in the *same* compartment above, a bishop in the act of blessing, is evidently the same Thomas, *now primate, martyr, and saint*. Thus does one ancient painting of an historical nature, like some modern paintings, throw off the restraint of confining itself to a single point of time, and comprehend several points in succession!

V. *Further Observations on Caractonium and the Parts adjacent.*
By John Cade, Esq.

Hot. O, he's as tedious
As is a tired horse, a railing wife,
Worse than a smoaky house. I had rather live
With cheese and garlick, in a windmill, far,
Than feed on cutes, and have him talk to me,
In any summer-house in Christendom.
Molt. In faith, he is a worthy gentleman;
Exceedingly well read, and profied
In strange concealments.

VI. *Descriptions of two ancient Mansion Houses in Northampshire and Dorset.* By Richard Gough.

Too petty for publication in this form, and much too petty for our criticism!

VII. *Extracts out of an old Book relating to the building of Louth Steeple, and repairing the Church, &c. from about the Year 1500 or 1501 to 1518.* Communicated by Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.

VIII. *Account of the ancient Modes of Fortification in Scotland.*
By Robert Riddel, Esq. F. A. S.

The title promises more than the work performs. The former is attractive, the latter is not repulsive, and yet the reader has little satisfaction.

[To be continued.]

ART. XVI. *The Natural History of Birds; containing a Variety of Facts selected from several Writers, and intended for the Amusement and Instruction of Children. With Copper-plates.* pp. 493. 12mo. 3 vols. 9s. boards. Johnson. London, 1791.

THE design of this publication is excellent. Zoology is a study peculiarly calculated for young persons; it requires no exertion of the understanding, while it mingles instruction

* *Historiæ Anglicanæ Scriptores Varii*, by Sparke, p. 22—23.
with

with entertainment. It stores the mind with an assemblage of curious and useful ideas, and prepares for the cultivation of the more arduous sciences. The execution of the present work is equally entitled to our commendation. The selection of materials is, on the whole, judicious, and conveyed in a plain style, suited to the capacity of children. Pennant, Latham, Linnæus, and particularly Buffon, have been consulted. The generic characters are given from Linnæus, but all minute descriptions and technical terms are avoided. Some moral reflections of an easy nature are occasionally introduced. Humanity is particularly inculcated; and the young reader is taught to trace the marks of goodness and design in the structure and destination of birds. The work is in general accurate, notwithstanding a few mistakes. For instance, the humming-bird is said to inhabit the East-Indies and America, whereas that brilliant production is confined entirely to the new world. Perhaps the compiler judged wrong in following the Linnæan arrangement, which is so very remote from the system of nature.

The engravings are mere sketches, but sufficient to give a tolerable idea of the objects which they represent.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XVII. *Caroli a Linné Prælectiones in Ordines naturales Plantarum.*

ART. XVII. *Public Lectures on the natural Orders of Plants. By Charles de Linné; offered to the Public by M. Giseke, from his own Annotations and those of M. Fabricius. 8vo. Hambourg. 1792.*

THE fifty-eight natural orders, a sketch of which Linnæus inserted in the sixth edition of his *Genera Plantarum*, and the lectures which, in 1764, he gave on the same subject to a select number of pupils, so excited the attention of Professor Giseke, that in the year 1771 he made a journey to Upsal to have a personal conference with the immortal Swede on this new arrangement of vegetables. He succeeded so far as to engage Linnæus to return to the lectures he had formerly given, and to add such new discoveries as had any connexion with them, as well as the result of his thoughts on a subject which engaged his chief attention for the last years of his life. M. Giseke's concerns would not permit him to remain in Upsal so long as he wished. He was, however, fortunate enough to have

have some friends whose curiosity had brought them on the same errand, and who, having diligently attended Linnæus's lecture, communicated their notes to M. Giseke. Thus the work before us is collected partly from the manuscript of the editor, and partly from that of Professor Fabricius, a character equally entitled to the confidence of the public. To render the publication as useful as possible, M. Giseke has collected all the opinions of Linnæus which are scattered in his different works, and all the lights which succeeding discoveries have added on the families of plants. A table, ingeniously contrived by M. Giseke, exhibits, at a single view, the appearances of these families, their connexions and distinctions. The fruit of some palms, hitherto little known, are well delineated. In short, M. Giseke has omitted nothing that might render his book useful to the lovers of botany.

ART. XVIII. *Caroli a Linné, &c. Genera Plantarum earumque Characteres, &c.*

ART. XVIII. *The Genera of Plants and their natural Characters, according to the Number, Situation, and Proportion, of all the Parts of Fruitification. By Charles Linné, Knight of the Polar Star, First Physician and Botanist to the King of Sweden, &c. The Eighth Edition, from that of Reichard, corrected and considerably augmented by John Christien Daniel Schreber, Aulic Counsellor and Physician to the Margrave of Brandenburg, &c. 8vo. Strasburgh. 1791.*

IN this work Linnæus teaches what he calls the natural characters of the *genera* of plants. The classes are fixed by the number and situation, or both, of the stamina, or male parts of the flower. The number and situation of the pistils (the female parts) constitute the orders, or subdivisions, of the classes. The genera are determined by all the parts of fructification, their number, form, situation, and proportion. Thus the characters of Linnæus are applicable to every method founded on the parts of fructification only. This is the advantage of his system over those of his predecessors, and still preserves his generic divisions, though the system is changed.

This work should be considered as one of the most important of Linnæus's. By it we learn, that before he published the first edition of 1737, he examined the characters of 8000 plants. Those only who are in the habit of observing plants with accuracy, can judge of the difficulty of such an undertaking, and what must have been the application of this great man to have accomplished it at such an advanced age? One cannot

sufficiently admire the exactness with which he has traced and compared such a number of plants; and the justness and precision of that assemblage of terms invented to express the numerous differences of form, figure, and situation, in so vast a variety of objects.

The first edition of the *genera* contained 935; the second, published at Stockholm in 1764, extended the number to 1239; the *mantissa* increased it 1339. But this last edition is so much enlarged as to amount now to 1769 *genera*. As many plants are daily discovered, and the characters of others are described with more exactness, it became M. Schreber to enrich this edition in these two points. In fact, since the celebrated Linnæus put the finishing stroke to his *mantissa*, several botanists have undertaken long voyages to distant, and almost unknown countries; their discoveries have been dispersed, and consigned to their particular publications; M. Schreber has therefore collected the additions made by Linnæus, Thunberg, Jacquin, the Forsters, Murray, Pallas, Aublet, Sonnerat, L'Héritier, Cavanilles, Erhart, Forskall, Gaëtner, Molina, Dombey, Ruiz, Lamarck, Swartz, Vahl, Jussieu, Walter, Fraser, Aiton, Smith, and Hedwig; so that we are indebted to the industry of this professor for the history of the present *generic treasures* of botany. It becomes us to add, that this work of immense labour is executed with the utmost exactness and perspicuity.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For MARCH 1793.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 19. *A Systematical View of the Laws of England, as treated of in a Course of Vinerian Lectures, read at Oxford during a Series of Years, commencing in Michaelmas Term 1777. By Richard Wooddeson, D. C. L. Vinerian Professor, and Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, and Counsel to that University.* pp. 1710. 8vo. 3 vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. boards. Payne. London, 1792.

ALMOST ten years ago this author published his *Elements of Jurisprudence*, containing the six first lectures of his annual course, with an account of the manner and general plan of the whole undertaking. It would not only be tedious but unnecessary to enumerate the multiplicity of subjects comprised in the present work. Suffice it to say, that the lectures are composed with great perspicuity, and evince an accurate acquaintance with the laws and judicial de-

cisions in this kingdom. They seem to be intended principally, if not solely, for the use of those who study the law as a profession and to such, as a system of legal knowledge, enriched with pertinent observations, they cannot fail of affording a degree of satisfaction proportioned to the extraordinary pains which the author must have taken in compiling so extensive and elaborate a work. We are only sorry that, from the nature of such a work, our short account of it must appear extremely disproportioned.

ART. 20. *Omar and Zemira; an Eastern Tale. Founded on the Piety of the Asiatics. Second Edition.* pp. 155. Small 8vo. Portsmouth: printed for the Author. No Price. 1791.

Mr. Yeo, the author of this publication, complains, in the dedication to Mrs. Roddam, that a gentleman known in the literary world, who was employed as editor of the first edition, took the liberty of bestowing upon it many *improper* embellishments, which the parent has sedulously stripped it of, upon its being ushered a second time into the world. We have not seen this embellished edition, so cannot absolutely determine whether the accused editor merited the blame or thanks of the author; but we are inclined to think that the latter suffered no injury, as Omar and Zemira is one of those things which we hold it next to impossible to spoil.

We have seldom met with a performance of this kind below the level of the present production, whether we consider the expression or the arrangement of the narration.

Striving in some places to imitate the eastern phraseology, he falls into the most ridiculous absurdities; speaks of '*paroxysms of ease*'; of '*the weeping tears of joy*';—of '*the breeze sinking in its own arms*';—'*the benign influence of the dying breeze sinking in the placid arms of Zephyr*,' &c. &c. At other times he drops from his sublimity so unexpectedly, and in a manner so truly ludicrous, that his own tumbler Abdallah could never exhibit any thing more risibly extraordinary. Here follows one of his admirable *descentions*: 'But what, Oh! what surprise at an additional instance of heavenly munificence, when this imaginary danger proved the source of unparalleled *glee*.' How perfectly well acquainted must Mr. Yeo be with every delicacy of the English language when he expresses all the fine and tender feelings of a daughter who unexpectedly meets a father she had despaired of ever seeing more, by the word *glee*!

The writer is equally faulty in the conduct of his narrative as in his mode of expression; it is every where confused and obscure.

Before this author had ventured to present the world with an *oriental* tale, he should have endeavoured to attain some knowledge of *eastern* manners, customs, religion, &c.: but he has taken particular care to convince his readers that he is totally unacquainted with all these matters. The *true* Mussulman abhors images of every kind, but the *apocryphal* Mussulman of this work is made to deck his mosque 'with historical paintings, and a large statue of gold!'—A *native* merchant from the coast of Coromandel speaks of *Ilelicon* and *Parnassus* as if he had been a *native* of Greece, and, what is no less wonderful,

wonderful, is as well acquainted with '*chevaux de frize*,' and a '*chemin des ronds*,' as if he had been a pupil of Vauban or of Coehorn. This well-informed writer at last assembles all his personages in Arabia, where he tells us that 'the *Caliph* was a magistrate who acted under the *Emir*;' and where he makes the '*Dalia Lamah*' a resident in the palace of the Emir, whom he addresses as his superior and 'father of the faithful!' But enough—What can we say more? We can only say, that Mr. Yeo is throughout the same, that he is '*totus teres atque rotundus*;' that he knows as much of eastern manners, customs, and religion, as he does of the English language, and the rules of composition.

ART. 21. *Dramatic Dialogues, for the Use of young Persons.* By the Author of the *Blind Child*. pp. 359. 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. Newbery. London, 1792.

Every work that tends to improve the morals of young persons must receive, because it is entitled to, our commendation and applause. For this reason we recommended the excellent production of M. Berquin, called *The Children's Friend*. On this account we beg leave to recommend to parents and to youth these Dramatic Dialogues, which are written in a plain, comprehensive style, and which tend to correct in young persons those bad habits which they acquire, either from improper companions, or from neglected education.

ART. 22. *The British Lyre; or, Muse's Repository, for the Year 1793.* pp. 60. 8vo. 1s. Desmond. London, 1793.

We do not mean to disgrace our page by any analifation of this contemptible performance.

ART. 23. *The Prisoner; a Musical Romance, in Three Acts.* First performed by his Majesty's Company from the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane, at the King's Theatre, Haymarket, on Thursday, October 18th, 1792. pp. 28. 8vo. 1s. Lowndes. London, 1793.

In a short preface to the Prisoner the author says, that 'he cannot permit an opera to be printed, depending so much upon the performers, without expressing himself highly obliged by their exertions, which, together with the advice and indefatigable attention of Mr. Kemble, could alone ensure that uncommon success it has met with.' As our opinion coincides with that of the author, we need add, *verbum non amplius*.

ART. 24. *Cyanna of Athens; a Grecian Romance.* pp. 342. 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. Axtell. London, 1792.

This romance is translated from the French of the Baron de Bilderbec. We cannot avoid wishing that the translator had employed himself in a more useful manner. There is very little novelty in the construction or conduct of the work; the language, evidently an imitation of that of Rousseau, is inflated, and removed, *longo intervallo*, from the delightful style of that great man.

ART. 25. *An Elegy on the Death of the Rev. Mr. John Ryland, M. A. of Northampton, who died at Enfield on July 24, 1792, in the 69th Year of his Age. By Legatus.* pp. 20. 4to. 1s. London: printed for the Author, and published by Gurney. 1792.

' So too the self-conceited hoary Greek,
When Paul of Jesus and his love did speak,
Pronounc'd his wisdom foolish and absurd,
Vow'd he'd be lost e'er he'd believe a word.'

Gentle reader, one couplet more, and we release thee:

' Newton and Cecil, Clayton, David Jones;
These are not drowsy, idle, useless drones.'

Then, Mr. Legatus, they neither read or write such poetry as yours. The former must make them more than drowsy; and to spoil paper is doing mischief, the constant attendant on idleness.

ART. 26. *A few Words of Advice to the Common Council of Liverpool. By Liverpoolian's Pindar, Esq.* pp. 22. 4to. 1s. 6d. Symonds. London, 1791.

As the subject of this poetical attempt is not of a public nature, we forbear saying more than that, if it entertain the good people of Liverpool, the author will probably be of opinion that *omne tulit punctum*.

ART. 27. *Christianity; a Poem.* pp. 17. 4to. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. London, 1791.

The author wishes to prevail upon the rich man to bestow 'the superfluous' of his wealth upon the poor. That success will attend the meritorious attempt we are not sanguine enough to expect.

POLITICAL.

ART. 28. *The Patriot. Addressed to the People, on the present State of Affairs in Britain and France. With Observations on Republican Government, and Discussions of the Principles advanced in the Writings of Thomas Paine.* pp. 76. 8vo. Edinburgh, printed; Nicol. London, 1793.

The political doctrines set afloat by the effusions of Thomas Paine have undergone a variety of refutation; and however dangerous the poison they contained, it seems now to be happily rendered abortive of any pernicious effects upon the minds of the people. The present author contributes his observations towards this salutary purpose. His reflections in general, we think, are founded in truth; and he discovers a laudable solicitude to convince his countrymen of the excellence of the British constitution, as well as of the great defects of the form of government introduced into France, in consequence of wild speculations on the theory of politics.

- ART. 29. *An Answer to Paine's Rights of Man.* By John Adams, Esq. pp. 48. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1793.

The advertisement of this pamphlet announced that it was written by an eminent character in the American States, and high in office there; but the perusal fully convinced us that it was a misnomer. Pious frauds frequently occur when the minds of men are heated with controversy; but when discovered, they seldom answer the purpose, or promote the cause of the party which employs them. The present instance does not furnish an exception to the general rule. We never thought that Mr. Paine's writings were to overturn the English constitution; nor is it by such writers as this that the English constitution is to receive its support.

Non tali auxilio non defensoribus istis tempus eget.

Had the American Adams not possessed greater talents than the author of the pamphlet now before us, instead of having his name blazoned in the annals of fame through every country in Europe, he would never have been heard of beyond the boundaries of his own little town or village.

- ART. 30. *Constitutional Letters to Mr. Paine, in Answer to his Rights of Man.* pp. 19. 8vo: 1s. Riley. London, 1792.

Mr. Paine has nothing to apprehend from the authors of such productions as the present.

- ART. 31. *Supplement to the General View of the Affairs of the East-India Company, including an Answer to the Observations published by George Tierney, Esq. on that Subject.* By George Anderson, A. M. Accountant to the Right Hon. the Commissioners for the Affairs of India. pp. 38. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1792.

Mr. Anderson finds fault with Mr. Tierney's statement of the affairs of the East-India Company. The former gentleman attempts to prove that they are in a very flourishing condition: but,

Who shall decide when doctors disagree?

- ART. 32. *The authentic State Papers which passed between M. Chauvelin, Minister Plenipotentiary from France, and the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, from May 12, 1792, to Jan. 24, 1793, and presented to the House of Commons Jan. 28, 1793.* pp. 92. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. London, 1793.

As the public has been some time in possession of these documents, we shall forbear any comment upon them.

- ART. 33. *Observations on some late Proceedings of the National Convention of France,* pp. 23. 8vo. 6d. Murray. London, 1793.

There are some sensible remarks in this pamphlet, which is likely to produce the effect desired by the author, on account of the moderation of the language, and the coolness with which the conduct of the French is discussed.

- ART. 34. *Thoughts on the Manifesto of the French to all States and Nations.* By the Rev. Richard Worthington. pp. 49. 8vo. 1s. Debrett, London, 1792.

In the present opposition to French principles it may be imprudent to make any observations on Mr. Worthington's pamphlet, especially as we feel no inclination to disapprove of the sentiments contained in it.

- ART. 35. *Colony Commerce; or, Reflections on the Commercial System as it respects the West-India Islands, our Continental Colonies, and the United States of America. With some Remarks on the present high Price of Sugar, and the Means of reducing it.* By Alexander Campbell Brown. pp. 83. 8vo. 2s. Faulder. London, 1793.

Mr. Brown's remarks are ingenious and sensible. He seems well acquainted with his subject, which he treats in an enlarged and liberal manner. He reprobates the plans that have been proposed for reducing the price of sugar, and imputes the high prices which various articles bear to the allowance of monopolies.

- ART. 36. *The present State of the British Constitution, deduced from Facts.* By an Old Whig. pp. 28. 1s. Jordan. London, 1793.

These old whigs are a stubborn, disobedient race. Our vigilant ministers have been lately issuing a proclamation enjoining all men, high and low, rich and poor, to honour the constitution in its present state, as the perfection of human wisdom, conveying the highest degree of liberty to the people of England that they could possibly enjoy, and furnishing the never-ceasing theme of envy and admiration to every other nation under heaven. Their pious zeal, we thought, would have prevented every dog in the kingdom from opening his mouth against it: but here is one that barks very loud indeed. Yes, gentle reader, this old whig, not having the fear of government before his eyes, comes and tells us openly that the House of Lords is, for the most part, composed of men devoted to the court, and the House of Commons not deserving of the name of a free representation of the people, but from influence, gratitude, and expectations, entirely subservient to the will of the minister. He tells us, in short, 'that the extent of corruption in each house is omnipotent and irresistible.' The whigs will praise this as a well-written pamphlet, full of argument and conviction. Mr. Reeves and his associates will condemn it as bordering on sedition; the Painites (if any such there still be) will call the writer an honest man, who has the misfortune still to labour under old prejudices; we say, let every man read and judge, and make it his business to promote the peace and prosperity of his country.

- ART. 37. *The Necessity of a speedy and effectual Reform in Parliament.* By George Philips. pp. 72. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson. London, 1792.

Many people seem to think it as easy to mend a government as a pair of shoes; and political cobblers swarm in every town and village.

We who frequently experience difficulties in our function that a numerous class of our readers is not aware of, cannot help imagining that an alteration in the institutions of civil society is one of the most arduous of human employments, and must be attended with difficulties which it has not entered into the heart of the bulk of men to conceive. Let France serve for an example. Mr. Philips is more moderate than many of his brethren of the trade; and professing an ardent love for the English constitution, does not extend his ideas of change beyond a reform in the representation of the people in parliament. His plan is,

1. An admission of every citizen (minors and insane persons excepted) to an equal right of voting.
2. The formation of elective districts, consisting, as nearly as possible, of an equal number of electors.
3. Voting by ballot, and closing the poll in one day, together with some subordinate regulations to prevent disorders and undue influence.
4. Abolishing qualifications, so that each citizen be eligible to a seat in parliament, and allowing salaries to the members.
5. Annual parliaments.
6. Exclusion by rotation, so that no person be a representative more than three years successively, nor above two thirds of the members of one parliament eligible to the next.
7. Separation of ministers from the legislative assembly.
8. Authorising constituents to discharge their representatives.

How far this theory would succeed when reduced to practice, is a question that we shall leave our readers to resolve.

DIVINITY.

ART. 38. *An Attempt to familiarise the Catechism of the Church of England, in the Catechetical Form. For the Use of Teachers in Schools and Families.* pp. 290. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Longman. London, 1791.

This is another of Mrs. Trimmer's attempts to render obscure subjects easy to young people. The Church Catechism, however important, certainly abounds too much in technical phrases of theology, and is taught in too summary a manner to be intelligible, much less interesting to children. Of all the attempts to familiarise it, Mrs. Trimmer's is beyond comparison the best.

ART. 39. *A Companion to the Book of Common Prayer of the Church of England; containing a Comment on the Service for Sundays, including the Collects, Epistles, and Gospels. To which are added, Questions for the Use of Teachers in Schools and Families.* By Mrs. Trimmer. pp. 1038. 12mo. 2 vols. 7s. sewed. Longman. London, 1791.

No one can doubt the importance of a child's having a clear comprehension of those prayers he is to offer to the Deity. On this account we must allow Mrs. Trimmer much merit for the ingenious contrivance by which she has taught infants 'their duty in their

petitions.' Yet we cannot help wishing this industrious writer had stopped here: We could very well have spared her illustrations on the objectionable clauses of the Athanasian creed. Without observing how little consistent with Christian charity a doctrine must seem to many that damns everlastingly all who do not implicitly believe it, we cannot help thinking the effects on young minds may be very dreary and alarming. Their utter incapacity of comprehending the mystery of the Holy Trinity may induce doubts in their minds of the sincerity of their own belief. These doubts may lead to inquiries beyond the ears of their immediate teachers; and the simplicity of these inquiries may produce the smiles of the unitarian, or the scoffs of the irreligious. Hence those uncomfortable perplexities which too often embitter that engaging age in which nature kindly intended every novelty should charm, and every new idea become a source of a fresh enjoyment.

- ART. 40. *The Benefit of starving; or, The Advantages of Hunger, Cold, and Nakedness; intended as a Cordial for the Poor, and an Apology for the Rich. Addressed to the Rev. Rowland Hill, M. A. By the Rev. W. Woolley, M. A.* pp. 12mo. Terry. London, 1792.

The same wildness and peculiarity as marks the title-page runs through the whole of this pamphlet. The object is to shew that Mr. Rowland Hill, or the trustees of Surrey Chapel, for a long time refused to pay the author for reading prayers at that place, and at last paid him only at the rate of ten pounds per annum. That afterwards, when a candidate for the lectureship of Bethnal Green, a groundless report was spread of his being a Roman Catholic, the only foundation for which was, that he had visited France in company with a friend, who had kindly undertaken to pay his expences. We doubt not Mr. Woolley has been ill treated; but as another suggestion has been raised against him relative to the soundness of his reason, we would advise him to be less ironically whimsical in his style and expressions.

- ART. 41. *Plain and affectionate Addresses to Youth. By Robert Gentleman, Editor of Mr. Orton's Exposition of the Old Testament. With Devotional and Practical Reflections for the Use of Families.* pp. 369. 8vo. 3s. Robinsons. London, 1792.

The Rev. Mr. Gentleman deserves much praise for his production. His addresses are written in an easy, comprehensive style, very appropriately adapted to the understanding of persons of tender years. We beg leave to recommend this clergyman, in the strongest manner, to the notice and patronage of his excellent diocesan.

- ART. 42. *A short View of the Evidences, Doctrines, and Duties, of the Christian Religion, by Question and Answer. By the Rev. John Nicholl, Minister of Warrford, Northumberland.* pp. 67. 12mo. 1s. Law. London, 1792.

A pious treatise very useful to young persons.

- ART. 43. *The Scripture Doctrine of Election and Justification practically illustrated, in Two Sermons. By Owen Manning, B. D. Rector of Peperharow, and Vicar of Godalming.* pp. 50. 4to. ss. sewed. London, 1790.

The doctrine of election, as relating to things temporal only, is a new, but nevertheless a well-supported opinion; and Mr. Manning has considered it in that serious and diligent manner which so well becomes a minister of the gospel. The world is indebted to him for throwing an advantageous light on so intricate a part of scripture; perhaps it has never been more ably illustrated; he has also made just distinctions between the kind of justification necessary to our admission as members of Christ's church, and after as heirs to his heavenly kingdom. These particular passages could not have come into better hands; and we are happy to observe throughout them evident marks of judicious investigation into those passages which have been so differently thought of by prior writers.

- ART. 44. *A Sermon, preached at Norwich Cathedral, Dec. 26, 1790. By the Rev. John Gee Smyth, A. B. &c. The Profits to be applied to the Use of the Sunday Schools in St. Gregory's and Eaton.* pp. 24. 4to. 1s. 6d. Yarrington, Norwich. 1791.

The purposes to which the produce of the sale are to be applied would more strongly influence us to recommend this work to the public than the abilities of the writer. The arguments in favour of the divinity of Christ are undoubtedly good; and the pious intention of the author in appropriating the profits to a charitable use deserves every possible encouragement.

- ART. 45. *An Attempt to refute a Sermon by H. D. Inglis on the Godhead of Jesus Christ. By T. Fyfe Palmer, Member of the Unitarian College at Dundee.* pp. 74. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. London, 1792.

This ever was, is, and ever will be, a source of contention between the sects of which Mr. Palmer and Mr. Inglis are heads. The moderation, however, which distinguishes the tract before us is a strong recommendation of its arguments, which are moderately good; but the proofs, selected from sacred writ, are not so well defended but that they leave room for the opposite party to explain them so as to serve their own cause. Without doubt the intention is amiable; but unfortunately the obstinacy of different sects deadens their minds to any stroke pointed by a person of contrary opinions. We do not condemn Mr. Palmer for endeavouring to restore the long-lost truth of the first commandment; but we think that the religious controversies of sectaries in the three kingdoms fill the literary field with useless, and often noxious plants.

- ART. 46. *Civic Sermons to the People. Number I.* pp. 20. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. London, 1792.

There is a great deal of good sense in this production, which we would recommend to the attention of our fellow-citizens.

ART. 47. *Our appointed Time considered; a Sermon; occasioned by the Death of Mrs. Catherine Watkins. Preached at High Wycombe. By William Miller.* pp. 32. 8vo. 6d. Trapp. London, 1792.

A plain, old-fashioned sermon, by a person who appears to be very serious; and very much in earnest; but he ought to take more pains in composition and style; and should not pour his domestic woes in such full notes on the public ear.

ART. 48. *The Good Old Ways; a Sermon, preached at the Opening of the Church of Paddington. Published at the Request of the Trustees for rebuilding the Church. By John Shepherd, A. M.* pp. 19. 4to. 1s. 6d. sewed. Faulder. London, 1791.

Modern innovators on the rites of the established church are handled with becoming severity in this discourse, the merits of which (though it might do very well in the common course of delivery) are not striking enough to authorise its publication. The trustees for rebuilding the church no doubt thought it a good sermon; and, with the aid of a good orator, it might have produced a tolerable effect on the audience; but it does not step one degree above what might be expected from a man of common education, being equally destitute of defects and beauties.

ART. 49. *A Sermon, preached at the Cathedral Church of Bristol, Nov. 13, 1790, being the Anniversary Commemoration of Edward Colston, Esq. By Daniel Lysons, M. A.* pp. 19. 4to. 1s. Cadell. London, 1790.

Though this sermon is a panegyric on the character of a gentleman, whose benevolent exertions as an individual were laudable and extensive, yet the general merits and divinity of charity are directly attended to—the blessings of Providence on his philanthropy are expatiated upon as the greatest of all inducements to the affluent to follow his almost unequalled example. It is true, that when we read of such characters as Mr. Colston, we grow more in love with the world and ourselves, and a complacency of this kind produces social affections to our fellow-creatures. We sincerely wish the amiable virtues of the subject of this discourse may inspire emulation in its readers.

ART. 50. *An Address to the ingenious Youth of Great-Britain; together with a Body of Divinity in Miniature. To which is subjoined a Plan of Education adapted to the Use of Schools, and which has been carried into Execution during a Course of Fifty Years. By the Rev. John Ryland, A. M.* pp. . 12mo. 1s. 6d. or 2s. with a striking Likeness of the Author. London, 1792.

This respectable orthodox divine is too well known to make it necessary to say much of his writings. The print of him is well executed, and we doubt not a strong likeness.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For MARCH 1793.

INTRODUCTION.

THE annals of ancient or modern times have seldom presented scenes of greater misery, or exhibited prospects of more lasting calamity, than those which the present era affords. Amidst the desolation which reigns around him, the benevolent inquirer can scarcely select one spot on which his eye can dwell with complacency, or specify one action he can honour with approbation. As a politician, he shrinks at one moment from the approach of anarchy, and trembles at another for the establishment of despotism; the prosperity of the former produce much apprehension, and the successes of the latter inspire no consolation: while we are condemning the iniquitous contributions levied upon Antwerp by Dumourier, we are reminded of the rapacious exactions of Cobourg at Aix-la-Chapelle; and before we have ceased to execrate the aggrandising ambition of France, this country may become the spectator of the partition of the new republic, and perhaps participate in the spoil. When we examine the character of the different nations of Europe, among some of them we hear lofty declamations on religion and morality from their pulpits and senates, though infidelity lurks in the heart, and profligacy directs the life; and behold a people shunning the yawning abyss, yet playfully wanton on its brink; while among others principles of atheism are professed, homilies inculcating it are taught, and sentiments and actions operating in dreadful unison, create universal confusion. The delusive expectations of peace and tranquillity with which mankind were feeding their imaginations, add a deeper gloom to the spectacles which are now displaying; the mind, exhausted by hopes long deferred, and at length disappointed, languishes in inactivity, or sinks into depression, partakes in the angry passions which divide the world, or abandons its concerns as unworthy of notice, and beneath attention. There are objects, however, of sufficient magnitude to challenge observation, and convey instruction; and posterity has a right to expect the most accurate information concerning them, however unpleasant the narration may be, and however melancholy the reflections to which it gives rise. The warlike operations on the continent, the internal affairs of France, the condition

condition of the northern powers, and the situation of Great-Britain, furnish ample matter of speculation; and a slight survey of them will form the political review of the last month.

1. The subjugation of the United Provinces seems to have been the favourite project of the French general. When we consider the vigor, ability, and success, with which, at the head of a desperate and undisciplined militia, he repulsed the armies of Austria and Prussia, when we attend him at the battle of Jemappes, and through the conquest of the Netherlands, we are compelled to admire his talents, and tremble for the effect of his schemes. The struggles between the aristocracy and the Stadtholder, which have divided the inhabitants of Holland from the foundation of the republic, and the disgust which had been excited by the interference of Great-Britain and Prussia in favour of the latter, inspired him with the hope of raising dissensions among the people he was marching to subdue. No sooner had the National Convention given a sanction to his measures, by a declaration of war, than he obtained Breda by treachery, took Gertruydenberg by capitulation, and boasted of terminating the contest by the fall of Amsterdam. But a stop was speedily put to this career of victory: the Dutch, recovering from the surprise into which this sudden invasion had thrown them, animated by the promptness and energy with which their allies hastened to assist them, and convinced of the necessity of forgetting private animosities to preserve the property and lives of individuals, and the independence of their community, prepared to defend their country with all that obstinacy of valour, and firmness of resolution, which have ever been the distinguishing characteristics of that nation. The garrison of Williamstadt withstood every effort of the French arms, and Dumourier was obliged to retire with precipitation and disgrace, leaving the conduct of the siege to a legion of discontented Batavians, and the volunteers who followed his regular troops. Scarcely had Miranda sat down before Maastricht, and summoned the governor to surrender, when Prince Frederic of Brunswick arrived to its assistance, defeated the enemy, and saved him from the danger. The Austrians awakening from the inactivity into which they were plunged, surprised the French in Aix-la-Chapelle, drove them from the city of Liege, and the bishop of that district returned in triumph to his palace, before the deputies of this new department could arrive at the place of their destination. But the generalissimo of the commonwealth still remained unsubdued; he rallied around him the scattered battalions he had so often led to conquest and honour, and resolved to make a final stand against his successful antagonists. But fortune still continued to frown on the arms

of France; the courage of her troops, and the skill of their leader, were vainly opposed to the disciplined valour of the Imperialists; the laurels of Jemappes withered on the plains of Tirlemont, and the triumph of Cobourg and Clairfait has altered the fate of the Low Countries, and changed the destiny of Europe. On the banks of the Rhine the tremendous force of the Germanic body is about to be put in motion, and the weakened army of Custine will probably be the first victim of its operation. The enfeebled monarch of Spain is about to exert the last effort of her declining strength to avenge the cause of the murdered Louis; the united navies of Great-Britain and Holland are preparing to destroy the marine of the republic; and the National Convention opposes to these multiplied dangers a rashness which borders upon insanity, an enthusiasm which consumes without invigorating, and a perseverance which must end in destruction.

II. The clouds in which the internal government of our unhappy neighbours is involved, are not likely to dissipate. The constitution which has been framed by the committee appointed for that purpose, has been treated with disrespect, and appears to be sinking into oblivion. Like every other scheme which the French legislators have presented to their country, it may please the isolated observer in his closet, but possesses no cementing bond to unite the discordant mass of human opinion; prejudice, and passion. In establishing an ideal equality, it gives a decided superiority to presumptuous vice over unassuming integrity; in providing for the poor, it tramples on the rights of the richer classes of society; and in endeavouring to check the excesses of arbitrary power, bursts the bands of subordination, and prevents the operation of legislative enactments. The organisation of the executive council is injudicious, and the method of its appointment almost impracticable. It is perhaps one of the most difficult political problems to ascertain the mode of vesting a competent portion of efficient authority in a particular body, without infringing upon general freedom. In some countries it has been effected by creating various artificial ranks in the community, which inspire submission without injuring liberty, and command respect without requiring servility. As the Constituent Assembly in the first instance, and the National Convention in imitation of their example, refused to adopt any project of this nature; it only remained for them, by impressing on the minds of their fellow-citizens the clearest perceptions of moral beauty and deformity, to demonstrate the necessity of submitting to the laws, and to display the advantages resulting from obedience. Instead, however, of pursuing this course, the unbridled contentiousness of character which pervades the majority of the Convention, and the captious jealousy it has entertained of

of ministers nominated by itself, must have disseminated among the people of France the opinion, that exemption from all restraint is happiness, and to punish those who dare to impose it is virtue. Another fundamental error in this plan is the facility with which it may be altered: the formers of this constitutional code were probably unwilling to risk the perpetual felicity of their republic on the issue of an untried speculation, and have therefore delegated to its inhabitants the power of calling a national convention, in virtue of certain privileges denominated Rights of Censorship; and likewise imposed it upon the legislative body as an absolute duty, after twenty years, to summon a convention to revise and amend the constitution. According to these provisions, the intrinsic excellence of a government is to be estimated according to the ease with which it may be changed; nothing which is permanent can be useful; and the reason, philosophy, and rights, which at present illuminate the world, are the fleeting ephemera of the day, which flutter for a moment before the meridian sun, but sink with the shades of evening into forgetfulness and annihilation. But perhaps it is needless to speculate on a scheme which probably will never be adopted; for the party which espouses the interest of *Egalité* is daily gaining such an accession of strength, that we may soon behold that infamous miscreant at the head of the republic. The military prowess of Dumourier, and the formidable army which he once commanded, counterbalanced, in some degree, the predominating influence of this desperate faction; but an officer who has survived his reputation, and forces diminished and dispirited by defeat, will form a feeble barrier against the growing power and increasing confidence of its numerous adherents. Some ill-concerted attempts have been made, in different parts of the country, to restore the abolished monarchy; but the men who conducted them wanted vigour and unanimity, while their opponents are kept together by the sense of mutual interest, and seek, by the closest conjunction, to escape those punishments which a separation might enable an abused and deluded nation to inflict.

POLAND.

III. The mind which is unpolled by that geographical pity which is confined in its operation to climate, soil, or local situation, must pay the sincerest tribute of sympathetic sorrow to the beggared inhabitants of Poland and its degraded sovereign. An administration which has entered into war to preserve the balance of power, cannot behold with indifference a new division of that country between Austria, Prussia, and Russia. A nation which is proud of its freedom cannot approve the subjugation of a people whose only fault was defending their constitution.

constitution with more courage than discretion. Before the late endeavour to meliorate the government of Poland it exhibited a singular mixture of slavery with republicanism, and liberty with despotism; a form of policy which was the joint result of feudal oppression and Asiatic tyranny. The king was willing to relinquish part of his prerogative to improve the general condition of his subjects; but the power of arbitrary domination over their numerous vassals, was an usurpation too valuable to be surrendered by the nobility; and the uncontrolled possession of this privilege under the sway of Catherine, was preferred to the mild exercise of authority under the superintendence of Stanislaus. Checked by domestic faction, and overwhelmed by superior foreign force, this prince was compelled to acquiesce in terms of pacification to which nothing but the wish of saving himself and his country from destruction could have justified his submission. But even in this hope he is destined to meet with disappointment. His formidable neighbour, the King of Prussia, whose hatred for the republic of France can only be exceeded by his attachment to the commonwealth of Poland, has lately marched an army into the territories of the latter state, and seems resolved to cooperate with the Empress. Every action of this monarch's life originates in private or political weakness. In the earlier part of his career we behold him squandering the treasures which the economy of his illustrious predecessor had amassed, with the most thoughtless profusion, and at the present juncture sacrificing one part of his forces to the house of Austria, the ancient rival of his family, and endeavouring with another to facilitate the schemes of an ambitious potentate, of whose greater influence, and more ample resources, he will probably be the earliest victim. Invigorated as Russia has been by the transcendent talents of five successive sovereigns, possessing armies which unite the ferocity of barbarism with the coolness of discipline, and commanding an extent of territory which can supply every want, and provide for every emergency, nothing appears to have been requisite to pave her way to universal conquest but the general discord which pervades this quarter of the globe. And should this war continue, perhaps the time is not far distant when, according to the prediction of the philosophic citizen of Geneva, Russia will overrun the other states of Europe, and the Colmucs and Samoiodes erect their huts on the ruins of Paris and London.

GREAT BRITAIN.

IV. Though the declaration of war on the part of France may have exempted ministers from the necessity of distinguishing the case of this country from that of the combined powers, yet

yet it is to be hoped that, for the honour of the nation, they will observe a distinction. As the protection of the States of Holland, the vindication of their right to the exclusive navigation of the Scheldt, and the relinquishment of the conquests made by the generals of France, were the sole objects of our entering upon the contest, when they are obtained, hostilities ought to terminate. To punish the crimes committed in that country, would be arrogating the privilege of omnipotence; and to regulate its internal government, or direct the opinions which should be adopted by its inhabitants, would be a violation of the law of nations, and an infringement of the unalienable right of private judgment. Recent occurrences may give the lover of peace some reason to hope that Great-Britain will extend the olive branch almost as soon as she has drawn the sword, and, dropping the narrow views which arise from contracted alliances and partial friendships, assume the more illustrious character of promoter of universal tranquillity and harmony. Flourishing as the condition of our finances may be, and ably as they are managed by the present servants of the crown, yet we must lament every occasion which calls for additional taxes, or demands the continuance of those already imposed. The alarming failures which have lately taken place, discover the expediency of using every method to preserve that confidence between government and individuals, and man and man, which is the sole foundation of commercial prosperity. And though these bankruptcies are not directly attributable to the war in which we are engaged, yet it is to be apprehended that its continuance will increase their number, and enhance the evils with which they are attended. The government of our eastern possessions, the regulation of the trade to those regions, and those just and necessary amendments in the constitution and civil policy of the kingdom, which wisdom can no longer refuse, and power no longer withhold, are objects of peculiar importance at the present crisis; and we trust that the loyalty, zeal, and patience, of the people will meet with an ample reward in the affection, patriotism, and integrity, of our rulers.

✉ *Communications for THE ENGLISH REVIEW are requested to be sent to Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-street, London; where Subscribers for this Monthly Performance are respectfully desired to give in their Names.*

T H E

E N G L I S H R E V I E W ,

For A P R I L 1793.

ART. I. *Travels in India, during the Years 1780, 81, 82, and 83. By William Hodges, R. A.* pp. 156. 4to. 1l. 1s. Edwards. London, 1793.

OUR connexion with India has naturally excited a curiosity in this country respecting every thing which relates to a people that furnish such ample materials to the antiquary, the historian, the geographer, the philosopher, and the artist. That curiosity has been, in some measure, gratified by the various publications which have appeared on Indian laws, customs, manners, religion, and history. To the labours of the several authors in these departments we are much indebted; their diligence and exertions are highly commendable; but, though much has been done, yet we do not hesitate to say, from the difficulties which attend the investigation of truth on all these subjects, that much still remains to be achieved before we can pronounce decidedly at least upon some of the objects of investigation we have mentioned.

Mr. Hodges has taken possession of ground which has hitherto been hardly at all preoccupied. Any thing similar which has appeared in former publications was only a passing notice, and not professedly the object of the authors. With respect to the nature of the work, the author shall speak for himself:

It is only matter of surprise, that, of a country so nearly allied to us, so little should be known. The public is, indeed, greatly indebted to the learned labours of gentlemen who have resided there, for the information which they have afforded concerning the laws and the religion of the Hindoo tribes; as well as for correct and well-digested details of the transactions of the Mogul government. But of the face of the country, of its arts, and natural productions, little has yet been said. Gentlemen who have resided long in India lose the idea of the first impression which that very curious country makes

upon an entire stranger: the novelty is soon effaced, and the mind, by a common and natural operation, soon directs its views to more abstract speculation; reasoning assumes the place of observation, and the traveller is lost in the philosopher.

‘To supply, in some slight degree, this hiatus in the topographical department of literature, is the immediate object of the following pages. It will, I flatter myself, not be disagreeable to my readers to be informed, that they consist of a few plain observations, noted down upon the spot, in the simple garb of truth, without the smallest embellishment from fiction or from fancy. They were chiefly intended for my own amusement, and to enable me to explain to my friends a number of drawings which I had made during my residence in India, some of which accompany the present publication.’

After residing a year at Madras, Mr. Hodges sailed for Bengal in February 1781, and arrived in the Ganges in March. In April he left Calcutta, and travelled three hundred miles up the country to Mongheir, in pursuit of proper objects to exercise his pencil. In accompanying our traveller on this expedition, the reader will be amused with the variety of objects which are presented. We select the following scenery which he exhibits in his account of his return to Calcutta by water:

‘From Mongheir I embarked, and returned by water to Calcutta; and here I had an opportunity of observing a series of scenery perfectly new; the different boats of the country, and the varied shores of the Ganges. This immense current of water suggests rather the idea of an ocean than of a river, the general breadth of it being from two to five miles, and in some places more. The largest boats sailing up or passing down, appear, when in the middle of the stream, as mere points, and the eastern shore only as a dark line marking the horizon. The rivers I have seen in Europe, even the Rhine, appear as rivulets in comparison with this enormous mass of water. I do not know a more pleasant amusement than sailing down the Ganges in the warm season: the air, passing over the great reaches of the river many miles in length, is so tempered as to feel delightfully refreshing. After sun-set the boats are generally moored close to the banks, where the shore is bold, and near a gunge or market, for the accommodation of the people. It is common, on the banks of the river, to see small Hindoo temples, with gauts or passages, and flights of steps to the river. In the mornings, at or after sun-rise, the women bathe in the river; and the younger part, in particular, continue a considerable time in the water, sporting and playing like naiads or syrens. To a painter’s mind, the fine antique figures never fail to present themselves when he observes a beautiful female form ascending these steps from the river, with wet drapery, which perfectly displays the whole person, and with vases on their heads, carrying water to the temples. A sight no less novel or extraordinary, is the Bramins at their oraisons; perfectly abstracted, for the time, to every passing object, however attractive. These devotees are generally naked,
except

except a small piece of drapery round the middle. A surprising spirit of cleanliness is to be observed among the Hindoos: the streets of their villages are commonly swept and watered, and sand is frequently strewed before the doors of the houses. The simplicity and perfectly modest character of the Hindoo women cannot but arrest the attention of a stranger. With downcast eye and equal step they proceed along, and scarcely turn to the right or to the left to observe a foreigner as he passes, however new or singular his appearance. The men are no less remarkable for their hospitality, and are constantly attentive to accommodate the traveller in his wants. During the whole of the journey in my pallankeen, whatever I wanted, as boiling water for my tea, milk, eggs, &c. &c. I never met with imposition or delay, but always experienced an uncommon readiness to oblige, and that accompanied with manners the most simple and accommodating. In perfect opposition is the Mussulman character—haughty, not to say insolent; irritable, and ferocious. I beg, however, to be understood of the lower classes; for a Moorish gentleman may be considered as a perfect model of a well-bred man. The Hindoos are chiefly husbandmen, manufacturers, and merchants, except two tribes—the Rajapoots, who are military, and the Bramins, who are ecclesiastics. The Mussulmans may be classed as entirely military, as few of them exercise any other employment, except collecting the revenues, which, under the Moorish governments, have been always done by military force.

The next expedition of our author was with the Governor-General, Mr. Hastings, to Benares; an expedition since rendered famous by the importance given to it in one of the articles of impeachment. In his way to Benares he had an opportunity of seeing, at Moonhier, some distance from Patna, the ruins of a mosque, the figure of whose dome he prefers to all those of European construction:

‘ This building, though not large, is certainly very beautiful: it is a square, with pavilions rising from the angles; and in the centre is a majestic dome, the top of which is finished by what the Indian architects call a cullus: the line of the curve of the dome is not broken, but is continued by an inverted curve until it finishes in a crescent. I cannot but greatly prefer this to the manner in which all great domes are finished in Europe, by erecting a small building on the top, which, at the point of contact with the dome, has a sharp angle. The outer surface of this dome is ornamented by plantane leaves cut in stone, covering the whole; the lines intersect each other in great lozenges, and form altogether a beautiful ornament. The great entrance to the mosque is similar to many of the doors to our large Gothic cathedrals, having columns diminishing, as it were, in perspective to the inner door. There is a large tank belonging to it, with several buildings rising from the water, containing pavilions. The whole, however, is much decayed.’

The short account he gives of the transactions at Benares agrees with every account, but that of the managers of the impeachment, and are already well known to the public. Turning from these transactions, he gives a description of the city of Benares. Some Hindoo ruins attract his attention, from discovering in various parts of them the ornaments of Grecian architecture:

‘ During my studies at Benares, when I was making drawings of some Bramins, and several other persons who were entering and departing from a temple named Vis Vissha, my attention was called to the building itself; and the more I regarded it, the more I was surprised to discover ornaments upon it which were familiar to my eyes. I then determined to make a sketch of the whole, which I executed, as well as a more complete drawing of one of the columns; for on accurately observing the building in all its parts, I found each column to contain the different ornaments which were found in the other parts of the building.’

We are as much struck as Mr. Hodges could possibly be when we view the column which he has given of the temple of Vis Vissha. Though the form be not exactly the same, yet the style is what every one must consider as Grecian; and though some may consider it as overcharged with ornament, yet, taking it altogether, it forms an elegant whole, which we have never seen surpassed. It is somewhat extraordinary that the *flur-de-lis* should be the prominent ornament of this column: it appears under the capital, again in the centre of the column, and lastly above the base. Is Mr. Hodges sure that he copied the ornaments correctly? In this place our author gives his ideas on the different styles of architecture; but as the substance of what he here says has already appeared in a former publication, we do not think it requisite to enter into a detail upon the subject. We cannot, however, quit it without joining him in thinking that our architects betray much servility, and want of true genius, in adhering so scrupulously as they do to Grecian forms. We think that the forms might be infinitely varied, and give a scope to fancy and genius, of which our timid architects seem to have no conception. The best of them contents himself with ringing a few paltry changes on a contracted scale, when every form, and every combination of form, is in his power. We are satisfied that an emancipation of this kind would produce many *masters*; but, under the guidance of genius and taste, of what beauties might it not be productive? These are but faint hints, for this is not the place for a dissertation of the kind. A good treatise on the science of architecture (at present it is not a science) would be a most acceptable present to the world.

After

After having finished his drawings at Benares Mr. Hodges made an excursion into the hills to the south and south-west of Baugelepoor. The religion and manners of the inhabitants of these hills differ totally both from those of the Hindoos and Moors. They had exercised the profession of freebooters, living by the plunder they collected in their incursions, till Mr. Cleveland, the resident at Baugelepoor, by a conduct equally politic and humane, gained upon their affections, and rendered them not only peaceable, but the defenders of the country they had been accustomed to ravage. The account of the annual sacrifice of these highlanders, to which Mr. Cleveland and the author were invited, does not give us a high idea of their civilisation :

• The ceremony took place about nine o'clock. Before a small hut, and about six feet from the ground, was raised a kind of altar made of bamboos. The grand sacrifice was preceded by the decolation of a kid and a cock, the heads of which were thrown upon the altar, and there remained: little attention, however, was paid to this part of the ceremony by any of the party present. An hour or more afterwards we were apprised that the principal rite was about to be performed, and we repaired in consequence, without loss of time, to the place of rendezvous.

• The people had purchased a fine large buffaloe, which they had fattened, and were now dragging with ropes by the horns towards the spot where the kid and the cock had been already sacrificed. The animal was brought, with much difficulty, to the place of sacrifice, where the chief of the village attended: he was perfectly naked, except a cloth round his middle, and held a large and bright sabre in his hand. The place round the altar was soon crowded with people; men, women, and children attended, and the young men were all perfectly naked. To prevent the escape of the animal, they first ham-stringed him, and then began the dreadful operation. The chief stood on the left side of the animal, and with his sabre striking the upper part of the neck, near to the shoulder, must have given exquisite pain to the poor animal, who expressed it with great violence, by writhing, bellowing, and struggling with those that held him; indeed, their utmost exertions were scarcely sufficient to prevent him from breaking away. This horrid business continued for the space of more than a quarter of an hour, before the spine of the neck was cut through. When the animal fell, the Melchisedeck of the day still continued his work, and it was some time before the head was perfectly separated. Previous to the last stroke, he seemed to pause, and an universal silence reigned: when this was given, he stood perfectly erect, and, by raising the arm which held the sabre to the utmost extension, seemed to give the signal to the multitude, who rushed in and began scooping up the blood of the animal, which had liberally flowed from him on the ground. This they drank up, mixed as it was with the dust and loam, and besmeared each other with their hands. Bodies of them rushed over bodies, and rolling in confused

heaps, they appeared like an assemblage of demons or bacchanals in their most frantic moments. The body was next cut to pieces, and devoured; the head, however, was reserved, as those of the kid and the cock: so various are men in their conceptions concerning what may be most acceptable to the Deity. After the completion of this sacrifice, they retired to their several habitations in parties, and began the rejoicing of the day, which, indeed, was devoted to universal revelling and intoxication; and I could have wished, for the honour of the fair sex, that these latter excesses had been confined to the men. After the rights of Bacchus had far exceeded the bounds of temperance, those who were capable of sustaining an erect position began dancing, men and women promiscuously; others, in parties, roared out their extravagant joy in such strains, as may be supposed adapted to the present state of the performers; and the night concluded with a dead silence.

The author now returned to Calcutta, and remained there from the 15th of May, 1782, to the 10th of January, 1783, when he proceeded on a new tour to Allahabad, Cawnpoor, Lucknow, Fyzabad, and Oud. His next excursion was to Etaya, Jeswontnagur, O'Krairie, Shekoabad, Fyrozabad, Etamadpoor, Shah Dara, Agra, Futtypoor Sieri, and the fortress of Gawlior. He now determined to return to Calcutta by a different rout, and sailing down the rivers Goomty and the Ganges, arrived at the capital of the British settlements in the East on the 24th of September.

For the particulars of these tours we must refer our readers to the work itself, our limits only permitting us to insert the author's description of the tomb of the Emperor Acbar, a few miles from Agra, and to give to the public his short reflections on the state of the arts in India:

' At the distance of three coss, or a little more, from Agra, on the great high road leading to Dehli, at a place called Secundrii, stands the tomb of the Emperor Acbar. This enormous building is seated in a garden, regularly planted both with forest and fruit-trees, and many flowering shrubs, and walled round, which is supposed to contain a space of upwards of twenty English acres. The monument is raised in the centre of the garden; it is a square building, with gates in the centre on each side, and great pavilions at the angles and over the gates: it consists of five several stories, which gradually diminish with pavilions at each angle. The domes of the several pavilions are of white marble, the rest of the building is of red stone, in parts intermixed with white marble. The fifth or upper story is entirely of white marble, and has a range of windows running round each side, which are fret work, cut out of the solid slab. The pavilions that finish this story are likewise of marble; these have been greatly damaged, as I was told, by lightning, and by an earthquake. One of the pavilions is quite gone, and the domes of the others are greatly injured.

injured. The inside of this upper story is curiously inlaid with black marble, expressive of certain passages from the Koran; and I was informed by a critic in Persian writing, that it is in the most perfect style. On each story of this building are large terrasses, which, in the times of the Emperors Jehanguire and Jehan, had coverings of gold cloth, supported by pillars of silver. Under the shade of these awnings the mollahs, or priests, of the religion of Mahommed conversed with men of learning.

The principal entrance is by a grand gate leading to the garden; the front highly ornamented with mosaics of different-coloured marbles, inlaid in copartments. On either side the centre are two stories of pointed arches, and large recesses; in the upper story is a door in the centre, and a window over it, with a ballustrade in front; the lower recesses have one window in each. In the centre is one vast pointed arch; and this part of the building rises very considerably above the side over the two stories which have been just described. On the top, and somewhat behind the front of this part of the building, raised on square columns, are two sarcophagi of black marble; and two others immediately behind the back front of the gate, answering to those in the principal front. At each angle of the gate (this building being an oblong square) are minarets of white marble, rising to a great height, in part fluted; above the flutes, half way up the minarets, are ballustrades; and there is likewise one near the top. These minarets were formerly crowned with open pavilions, and finished with domes, which have long since been destroyed. In these minarets are staircases, leading to the two balconies that surround them. A large print, by that excellent artist Mr. Brown, has been engraved and published from a picture of this gate, which gives a more perfect idea of the grandeur of it than words are able to express. Through this gate we pass into a vast open hall, which rises in a dome nearly to the top of the building. This hall was, by the order of the Emperor Jehanguire, the son of Acbar, highly decorated with painting and gilding; but in the lapse of time it was found to be gone greatly to decay; and the Emperor Aurungzebe, either from superstition or avarice, ordered it to be entirely defaced, and the walls whitened. From this hall, through a similar arch to that in the front, we descend into the garden; and the whole of the tomb displays itself through an avenue of lofty trees. This avenue is paved with stone: in the centre is a large square basin, which was formerly filled with water, but was quite dry when I saw it. In the centre of the basin was a fountain, the pipe only remaining: the supply of water, indeed, had apparently been considerable here, for all through the middle of the avenue, and on either side, we observed channels, which must have been designed for aqueducts, but which were then dry. At some small distance from the principal building rises a high open gate, entirely of white marble, of exquisite beauty.

A blazing eastern sun shining full on this building, composed of such varied materials, produces a glare of splendour almost beyond the imagination of an inhabitant of these northern climates to conceive; and the present solitude that reigns over the whole of the

neglected garden, excites involuntarily a melancholy pensiveness. After viewing this monument of an Emperor whose great actions have resounded through the world, and whose liberality and humanity were his highest praise, I became desirous of seeing even that stone which contained his crumbling remains. There was an old mollah who attended, and had the keys of the interior of the building (which is still held in veneration), and who obtains a precarious subsistence by shewing it to the curious traveller. The inside of the tomb is a vast hall, occupying the whole space of the interior of the building, which terminates in a dome; a few windows at the top admit a 'dim religious' light, and the whole is lined with white marble. In the centre the body is deposited in a sarcophagus of plain white marble, on which is written, in black marble inlaid, simply the name of

A C B A R.

' From the summit of the minarets in the front a spectator's eye may range over a prodigious circuit of country, not less than thirty miles in a direct line, the whole of which is flat, and filled with ruins of ancient grandeur: the river Jumna is seen at some distance, and the glittering towers of Agra. This fine country exhibits, in its present state, a melancholy proof of the consequences of a bad government, of wild ambition, and the horrors attending civil dissensions; for when the governors of this country were in plenitude of power, and exercised their rights with wisdom, from the excellency of its climate, with some degree of industry, it must have been a perfect garden; but now all is desolation and silence. Surrounding the monument of Acbar are many tombs; some of them very beautiful: most probably they cover the remains of certain branches of his family. The traditionary report is here, that they are the tombs of his wives.'

' I cannot look back at the various scenes through which I passed in these excursions, without almost involuntarily indulging a train of reflections relative to the state of the arts under this as well as under the Hindoo government. The amazing monuments which are still to be found in India, prove the Mussulman conquerors to have been well acquainted with the principles of architecture, and at least to have had a taste for grand composition; in painting, on the contrary, they have only exercised themselves in miniature, many of which are highly beautiful in composition and in delicacy of colour; their attempts in this art have also been confined to water-colours; and they have laboured under a further disadvantage, the religion of Mahommed prohibiting all resemblances of animated nature. Whether the Arabs have ever transgressed the law in this point, I know not; but probably, on account of the remoteness of India from the original seat of the religion of Mahommed, it may have lost much of its rigour, and may therefore have left the princes of India at more liberty to indulge themselves in this elegant art.

' In

‘ In sculpture there are no instances of excellence among the Moors, except in the Taje Mahael at Agra, upon which there are flowers carved with considerable ability.

‘ The Hindoos appear to me to rise superior to the Mahomedans in the ornamental parts of architecture. Some of the sculptures in their buildings are very highly to be commended for the beauty of the execution; they may, indeed, be said to be very finely drawn, and cut with a peculiar sharpness. The instance which is produced in this work of a column from the temple of Vifs Vissha, at Benares, will prove it, although cut in free-stone. A similar instance cut in black basalt, in the collection of Charles Townley, Esq. (on which are ornaments similar to those which is referred to above) is a striking proof of their power in this art. This column was brought from Gour, an ancient city (now totally demolished), situated on the eastern shore of the Ganges, nearly opposite to Rajemahel. I have seen many instances of cast-metal statues, relative to Hindoo mythology, that prove their perfect knowledge in the art of casting. These works, as they apply to the religion of Bramah, are both curious and valuable; but, as they are purely mythological, the artists have only considered the symbolical character; without the proper attention, and perhaps without a power of giving a perfect beautiful form, such as we see in the Grecian statues.

‘ The paintings of the Hindoos, as they are, like their sculpture, chiefly applied to represent the objects of their religious worship, are certainly not so perfect as the Moorish pictures, which are all portraits. A constant study of simple nature, it is well known, will produce a resemblance which is sometimes astonishing; and which the painter of ideal objects never can arrive at.’

The public is much obliged to Mr. Hodges for this elegant work, which will afford both amusement and instruction. We could wish, however, that he had been more minute and scientific in his description of Indian architecture, and particularly that he had ascertained, by actual admeasurement, the proportions the inhabitants of India have observed in their buildings.

The work is accompanied by a map of the author's travels, and fourteen views, and other engravings, executed in a superior style, which, while they do justice to Mr. Hodges as a draughtsman, do equal credit to the artists he has employed.

ART. II. *The Natural History of Birds. From the French of the Count de Buffon. Illustrated with Engravings; and a Preface, Notes, and Addition; by the Translator.* pp. 4596. 8vo. 9 vols. 3l. 12s. boards. Strahan, Cadell, and Murray. London, 1793.

IT cannot be questioned, that to present the English reader with an additional work of a writer so universally celebrated as the late illustrious French naturalist, must be deemed a very acceptable service. His histories of the earth, of man, and of quadrupeds, are already well known in this country by translations and abridgments; and to have suffered so large and pleasing a part of his labours as that which treats on birds to remain unnaturalised among us, would have been a just imputation on our industry and curiosity. The task seems to have fallen into hands not unqualified to do it justice. It is executed by no means in the servile spirit of a drudge, but with the free pen of a person accustomed both to think and write for himself.

In a very well written preface the translator gives an account of the manner in which the original work was composed, and of the respective shares taken in it by the Count de Buffon and his able coadjutor, M. Gueneau de Monbeillard. He then characterises his own performance, and we shall copy the passage, both for the sake of the information in point of fact it will afford our readers, and the specimen it will give of his own unfettered style:

‘ In translating this work, I have studied to transuse the spirit of the author into our language. I was aware of the tendency to adopt foreign idioms, and I was solicitous to avoid that censure. How far I have succeeded, the public will judge. Zoological descriptions aim not only at perspicuity, but require the most minute accuracy; in such parts, therefore, where the subject assumes a loftier tone, I have stuck close to the original; I have endeavoured to observe a corresponding elevation of style. There are some sprightly turns in the French which the masculine character of our language will not admit; but these inferior beauties are amply compensated by the strength and dignity of its expression. The philosophy likewise of that ingenious people has a certain diffuse superficial cast, not altogether suited to the manly sense of the British nation. The translator should have a regard to the taste of his countrymen whom he addresses; and, on proper occasions, he may, with advantage, be permitted to abridge and condense.

‘ I have discovered in the text a few inaccuracies which I have taken the liberty to correct. A few notes which I have subjoined, will serve to elucidate the passages. I have consulted the latest authors who have either written expressly on Ornithology, or who have occasionally

occasionally handled the subject; and the additions which I have thereby been enabled to make, will, I trust, prove not unacceptable. I have bestowed particular attention to the nomenclature, which it is the principal aim of systems to fix and ascertain. These productions will, no doubt, rank very low in the estimation of the philosopher; yet they must still be regarded as useful helps towards the study of natural history. It was the want of them that so often occasions such obscurity and uncertainty in the writings of the ancient naturalists. If to discover the name of an animal or a vegetable, we were obliged to search over and compare a whole series of descriptions, the fatigue would be intolerable. No person objects to a dictionary because the words follow alphabetically, and not according to their gradation of meaning. If by means of arrangement, how artificial soever, we can, from a few obvious characters, refer an object successively to its order, its genus, and its species, we shall trace out its name, and thence learn its properties with ease and pleasure: and even though contiguous divisions always run into one another, the number of possible trials is at any rate much limited, and the labour of the investigation abridged. To complete natural history requires the union of Buffon and Linnæus. With this view, therefore, I have given an abstract of the Linnæan classification of birds from the last edition of his *Systema Naturæ*, by Gmelin, in 1788; and to each article of the work I have joined his names and synonyms, with a translation of the specific character. Most of the other additions I owe to Mr. Latham, and particularly to Mr. Pennant: I should be ungrateful did I not acknowledge the assistance which I have received from the various and entertaining works of this amiable naturalist.

We have compared many passages of all kinds in this translation with the original, and in general find that the sense of the author is fully comprehended, and adequately expressed, though with a studied conciseness, which may perhaps be thought to give it too much the air of an abridgment. The translator has, indeed, omitted no circumstance of fact or description; but in the philosophical and rhetorical passages he has very freely acted as a *pruner of the periods* of the eloquent, and sometimes fanciful, original. Without such a liberty, indeed, he could not have got the nine quartos of the French into as many English octavos, with fewer pages. A few critical passages respecting the names of ancient authors and their application, we find entirely omitted; but we confess that in Buffon these are often tedious, and not very interesting. Some notes criticising, often not very liberally, modern authors, are likewise left out; but, in return, the translator has added some of his own, correcting the text. On the whole, he has exercised a free judgment in his work, and we are not disposed to censure him on that account. The additions in his appendix, relative to systems of ornithology, and birds since discovered, cannot fail of being very useful.

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We shall now present to our readers a specimen or two, by which they may form a judgment of the manner in which this translation is written :

• The P E A C O C K.

Le Paon, Buff.

Pavo Cristatus, Linn. and Gmel.

The Crested Peacock, Lath.

• If empire belonged to beauty and not to strength, the peacock would undoubtedly be king of the birds ; for upon none of them has Nature poured her treasures with such profusion. Dignity of appearance, nobleness of demeanor, elegance of form, sweetness and delicacy of proportions, whatever marks distinction and commands respect, have been bestowed. A light waving tuft, painted with the richest colours, adorns its head, and raises without oppressing it. Its matchless plumage seems to combine all that delights the eye in the soft delicate tints of the finest flowers ; all that dazzles it in the sparkling lustre of the gems ; and all that astonishes it in the grand display of the rainbow. But not only has Nature united, in the plumage of the peacock, to form a master-piece of magnificence, all the colours of heaven and earth ; she has selected, mingled, shaded, melted them with her inimitable pencil, and formed an unrivalled picture, where they derive from their mixture and their contrast new brilliancy, and effects of light so sublime, that our art can neither imitate nor describe them.

• Such appears the plumage of the peacock, when at ease he saunters alone in a fine vernal day. But if a female is presented suddenly to his view ; if the fires of love, joined to the secret influence of the season, rouse him from his tranquillity, and inspire him with new ardour and new desires ; his beauties open and expand, his eyes become animated and expressive, his tuft flutters on his head, and expresses the warmth that stirs within ; the long feathers of the tail, rising, display their dazzling richness ; the head and neck bending nobly backwards, trace their shadow gracefully on that shining ground, where the sun beams play in a thousand ways, continually extinguished and renewed, and seem to lend new lustre, more delicious and more enchanting ; new colours, more variegated and more harmonious ; each movement of the bird produces new shades, numberless clusters of waving, fugitive reflections, which ever vary and ever please.

• It is then that the peacock seems to spread out all his beauties, only to delight his female, who, though denied the rich attire, is captivated with its display ; the liveliness which the ardour of love mingles with his gestures, adds new grace to his movements, which are naturally noble and dignified, and which, at this time, are accompanied with a strong hollow murmur expressive of desire.

• But this brilliant plumage, which surpasses the glow of the richest flowers, like them also is subject to decay ; and each year the peacock sheds his honours. As if ashamed at the loss of his attire, he avoids being seen in this humiliating condition, and conceals himself
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In the darkest retreats, till a new spring restores his wonted ornaments, and again introduces him to receive the homage paid to beauty; for it is pretended, that he is really sensible to admiration, and that a soothing and attentive gaze is the most certain means to engage him to display his decorations; but the look of indifference chills his vivacity, and makes him close his treasures.'

• THE PARADISE GRAKLE.

• *Le Martin*, Buff.

• *Paradisea Tristis*, Linn. and Gmel.

• *Gracula Tristis*, Lath. Ind.

• *Merula Philippensis*, Briss.

• This bird feeds upon insects, and the havoc which it makes is the more considerable, as it has a gluttonous appetite: the various sorts of flies and caterpillars are its prey. Like the carrion crows and magpies, it hovers about the horses, the oxen, and the hogs, in search of the vermin which often torment these animals to such a degree as to exhaust them, and even occasion death. The patient quadrupeds are glad to get rid of these, and suffer, without molestation, often ten or twelve Paradise Grakles to perch on their back at once: but the intruders are not content with this indulgence; the skin need not be laid bare by some wound; the birds will peck with their bill into the raw flesh, and do more injury than the vermin which they extract. They may, indeed, be considered as carnivorous birds, whose prudence directs them to attack openly none but the weak and the feeble. A young one was known to seize a rat two inches long, exclusive of the tail, dash it repeatedly against the board of its cage, break the bones, and reduce every limb to a pliancy suited to its views; and then lay hold of it by the head, and almost in an instant swallow it entire. It rested about a quarter of an hour to digest it, its wings drooping, and its air languid; but, after that interval, it ran with its usual cheerfulness, and about an hour afterwards, having found another rat, it swallowed that as it did the first, and with as little inconvenience.

• This bird is also very fond of grasshoppers; and as it destroys immense quantities, it is a valuable guest in countries cursed with these insects, and it merits to have its history interwoven with that of man. It is found in India and the Philippines, and probably in the intermediate islands; but it was long unknown in that of Bourbon. Not above twenty years ago, Desforgues-Boucher, governor-general, and Poivre, the intendant, perceiving this island desolated by grasshoppers, deliberated seriously about the means of extirpating these insects; and for that purpose brought several pairs of Paradise Grakles from India, with the view to multiply them, and oppose them as auxiliaries to their formidable enemies. This plan promised to succeed; when unfortunately some of the colonists, noticing these birds eagerly boring in the new-sown fields, fancied that they were searching for grain, were instantly alarmed, and reported through the whole island that the Paradise Grakle was pernicious. The cause was considered

considered in form: in defence of the birds it was urged, that they raked in new ploughed grounds, not for the grain, but on account of the insects, and were so far beneficial. However, they were proscribed by the council, and, two hours after the sentence was passed, not one was to be found in the island. This prompt execution was followed by a speedy repentance. The grasshoppers gained an ascendancy, and the people, who only view the present, regretted the loss of the Paradise Grakles. De Morave, consulting the inclinations of the settlers, procured four of these birds eight years after their proscription. They were received with transports of joy. Their preservation and breeding were made a state affair; the laws held out to them protection, and the physicians, on their part, declared that their flesh was unwholesome. After so many and so powerful expedients, the desired effect was produced; the Paradise Grakles multiplied, and the grasshoppers were entirely extirpated. But an opposite inconvenience has arisen; the birds, supported no longer by insects, have had recourse to fruits, and have fed on the mulberries, grapes, and dates. They have even scraped up the grains of wheat, rice, maize, and beans; they have rifled the pigeon-houses, and preyed on the young; and thus, after freeing the settlers from the grasshoppers, they have themselves become a more dreadful scourge. Their rapid multiplication renders it difficult to stop their progress; unless, perhaps, a body of more powerful rapacious birds were employed against them; a plan which would soon be attended with other difficulties. The great secret would be to maintain a certain number of Paradise Grakles, and at the same time to contrive to restrain their farther multiplication. Perhaps an attentive observation of the nature and instincts of grasshoppers, would suggest a method of getting rid of them, without having recourse to such expensive auxiliaries.

These birds are not timorous, and are little disturbed by the report of a musket. They commonly take possession of certain trees, or even certain rows of trees, often very near hamlets, to pass the night. They alight in an evening in such immense bodies, that the branches are entirely covered with them, and the leaves concealed. When thus assembled, they all begin to chatter together, and their noisy society is exceedingly troublesome to their neighbours. Yet their natural song is pleasant, varied and extensive. In the morning they disperse into the fields, either in small flocks, or in pairs, according to the season.

They have two hatches in succession every year, the first being in the middle of spring. These turn out well, unless the season be rainy. Their nests are very rude, and they take no precaution to prevent the wet from penetrating. They fasten them in the leaves of the palm or other trees, and whenever an opportunity presents, they prefer a hay-loft. These birds are warmly attached to their young. When their nests are about to be robbed, they flutter round, and utter a sort of croaking, which indicates their rage, and dart upon the plunderer. Nor do their fruitless exertions extinguish their affection; they follow their brood, which, if set in a window or

open

open place, the parents will carefully supply with food; nor will they in the least be deterred by anxiety for their own safety.

The young Paradise Grakles are quickly trained, and easily learn to prattle. If kept in the poultry-yard, they spontaneously mimic the cries of all the domestic animals, hens, cocks, geese, dogs, sheep, &c. and their chattering is accompanied with certain accents and gestures, which are full of prettinesses.

These birds are rather larger than the blackbirds; their bill and legs are yellow as in these, but longer, and the tail shorter. The head and neck are blackish; behind the eye is a naked reddish skin, of a triangular shape, the lower part of the breast, and all the upper part of the body, including the coverts of the wings and of the tail, of a chestnut brown; the belly white, the twelve quills of the tail, and the middle quills of the wings, brown; the large ones blackish, from the tip to the middle, and thence to their origin white; which produces an oblong spot of that colour near the edge of each wing when it is closed; and in this situation the wings extend to two-thirds of the tail.

It is scarcely possible to distinguish the female from the male by the external appearance.

From the preceding extracts the reader will obtain a tolerably adequate idea of the entertainment he is likely to meet with in this work. There are, indeed, many passages more technically descriptive, and more critical; but the glowing imagery and enlarged views of Buffon, which are his characteristics, will sufficiently appear, as well as the powers of language possessed by the translator.

ART. III. *Intimations and Evidences of a Future State.* By the Rev. T. Watson. pp. 228. 8vo. 3s. 3d. boards. Murray. London, 1792.

AMIDST the great variety of disquisitions on the subject before us, perhaps some plain and short, yet comprehensive treatise, was still wanting; to guide the sincere inquirer in the most interesting of all researches, rather than to gratify the theorist by metaphysical speculations.

There are some, who, treating on this subject, have puzzled their readers by various subtleties; unsettled the belief of the pious Christian, or thrown a gloom over his mind, by maintaining the doctrine of materialism; or refined away the soul's immateriality amidst a thousand niceties concerning essences and substances, and matter and spirit. Others, in collecting the evidences of a future state, have disdained all assistance from reason and natural religion; rejecting those obvious intimations of immortality which are suggested by different parts of God's works,

works, they have drawn all their proofs of the soul's existence in another life from revelation only.

The author of the present essay 'wishes only to say plain 'things, and such as may be generally understood:' and, as reason and revelation never can be enemies, he hath endeavoured to 'support and strengthen his cause by the aid of reason 'and natural religion.' And this treatise, from its perspicuity, brevity, and comprehensiveness, seems to be well calculated for general perusal.

The first part of the essay contains evidences from reason and natural religion. This part consists of twelve chapters. The first chapter, on the nature and degree of evidence to be expected for a future state, is extremely well written. There is an energy in the author's manner that speaks his own conviction of the great truths which he attempts to inculcate. The third chapter, on the desire of futurity deeply implanted in the breasts of all men, is sufficiently regular with respect to the distribution of the argument: yet we could not avoid the recollection of Bishop Porteus's more persuasive eloquence on this animating subject. Nor could we help recurring to the beautiful papers of Addison on the restless nature and progressive advancement of the powers and faculties of man in the scale of perfection. This is the subject of the fourth and sixth chapters.

In the second part the evidences from revelation are considered, in six chapters. From chapter the third, on Christ's sentiments, doctrines, method of teaching, and manners, we select the following remarks on our Saviour's dress:

'In his dress we hear of nothing singular, except an accidental hint that his coat was without seam. But this is not noticed as any instance of austerity, or even singularity. This coat might be a present from some of the pious women who followed him and ministered to him, and is mentioned merely as a circumstance which contributed to the fulfilment of a prophecy concerning him.

'In his dress it is most probable that he complied with the innocent and modest fashions of the times. And this seems confirmed; because in his discourses or rebukes we find no censure of the dress or fashions of this world, excepting where he condemns the pride of the Pharisees when courting the applause and reverence of their followers by the singularity of their dress, making broad their phylacteries, and enlarging the borders of their garments.'

We should remind our author, that, in his sermon on the mount, our Saviour inquires of his hearers, why 'they take 'thought for raiment;' and refers them to 'the lilies of the 'field, that neither toil nor spin.' Nor does he reason with them without censuring their vanity and worldly-mindedness: 'Wherefore,

‘ Wherefore, if God so clothe the grafs of the field . . . shall he not much more clothe you, O ye of little faith ?’

From the *whole* Mr. Watſon draws the following *concluſions*—that infidelity is unreaſonable—that the doctrine of a future ſtate reconciles us to many of the appearances of this world—that it is the beſt foundation of morals—that it confers true dignity on man—and that it is the beſt ſupport under afflictions, on the approach of death, and on the loſs of friends.

Such is this little treatiſe—chaſte in its language, unaffected in its manner, juſt in its ſentiment ; not the obtruiſive offspring of vanity or affectation, but, we truſt, the genuine product of ſincerity.

ART. IV. *Farrago; containing Eſſays Moral, Philoſophical, Political, and Hiſtorical, on Shakspeare, Truth, Boxing, Kings, Religion, Commerce, Governments, Politenefs, Ennui, Ingratitude, Fortune, Politics, &c. &c. Abſtracts and Selections on various Subjects. Published for the Benefit of the Society for the Diſcharge and Relief of Perſons imprifoned for ſmall Debts.* pp. 839. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. Tewksbury: printed for Elmiſly, &c. London. 1792.

THE benevolent intentions of this author and compiler might prove an apology for a work of leſs merit than the *Farrago*. Unequal as it certainly is in every part, we muſt allow that the original pieces are much ſuperior to thoſe ſelected, compiled, or tranſlated. In the firſt we ſee evident marks of genius and original thought; in the latter an arrangement ſo purely elementary, that one is led to conſider them as notes to aſſiſt the writer in the proſecution of his ſtudies. The tranſlations are, ſome of them, ſo replete with Galliciſms, ſo completely ſlovenly and incorrect, that we are induced to think them exerciſes the author propoſed for the younger part of his family. How elſe are we to account for the perpetual occurrence of *one* wherever the French word *on* is tranſlated—ſuch names as *Strabon* and *Denys*—or ſuch errors as *Angolis Pauſenias*? with numberleſs others, by which we are often induced to ſuſpect that the editor was not only too indolent to tranſlate, but even to correct.

After theſe free obſervations on the faults of the volumes, it becomes us in juſtice to mark their merits, which greatly outweigh the former. The firſt eſſay is on Shakspeare, and contains many valuable remarks and well-turned expreſſions. The latter part is an ingenious attempt at deſcribing Shakspeare in his own language. The ſecond; an Eſſay on Boxing, is replete

with humour, just remark, and historical fact; we only regret it is not longer. The subsequent one, on Friendship, is chargeable with no other fault. That on Government abounds with good things, but is too desultory. It is, however, pleasant to be taught, that the present times are the best that have ever existed; and so far we agree with the author: but we find it extremely difficult to reconcile ourselves to the idea that men are equally happy in a state of slavery or freedom. We see none willing to exchange the latter for the former, while all are anxious to become free, or to fancy themselves so. If it should be said, that this is a mistaken prejudice, and that if they knew how little there is in what is called liberty, they would cease to complain, we answer, that ideal miseries are not less distressing than real ones; and that the only remedy for them is conviction, which can only be acquired by trial. There is certainly a state of society in which liberty cannot be forced on man; nor, if it could, would he know how to enjoy it. But when by commerce and the arts he begins to acquire property, and to feel wants which had before lain dormant, a larger scope is necessary for the exercise of his faculties, and he must either be received into a class which will privilege him to oppress others, or liberty must be so universally diffused as to afford equal protection and equal rights.

On the subject of public executions, the author, like most other writers against established customs, finds it easier to object than to propose any thing better. While we subscribe to all his objections against bringing suffering criminals to public view, we should remember that the only object of punishment is to deter others from the practice of crimes. If, therefore, executions were private, would it not be a matter of doubt with many, whether they were ever performed? Would there not even be a reasonable doubt, whether the wealthy might not ransom their lives?—After the valuable and elaborate treatises of modern writers on the effects of commerce, we can hardly wonder if our author produces little novelty on this subject. Indeed, we are inclined to think that what he has ventured to add of his own is scarcely defensible. In this we ought to except his observations on the low price of labour among husbandmen. On politics and politicians every sentence we meet with is terse, comprehensive, and founded on a just review of well-known facts. The author shews, in a few words, how inadequate all the chicanery and affected profundity of politicians have been to produce their proposed end. How much blood and treasure have been exhausted on trivial causes, and that the pretext for war has generally been abandoned even by the victorious party. The following we select as particularly pointed:

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‘ In King William’s reign it was complained of in parliament as a grievance, that by the innovation of a *junto*, called a cabinet council, the privy council, a constitutional institution, was jostled out of its province; but how, in our days, if the cabinet council is assembled only like the former parliaments in France, to register the king’s edicts? It has been frequently announced in the public papers, that in some late political buillies, that all dispatches were first carried to the king, and not, as formerly was the rule, to the secretary of state’s office; we do not know that this new practice, which in a manner annihilates the secretary of state’s office, is founded in the nature of our constitution, even in the opinion of an honest tory; but we know that it is very consistent in such governments as Prussia.

‘ From the beginning of this century to the present time, it has been the constant practice, under one or other futile pretence, to gratify the reigning prince with the disposal of the blood and treasure of the nation, to poize the jarring interests of German princes, or countervail French intrigues; to overlook our insular situation, and to persuade the people that their safety was concerned in what might befall Bavaria or Austria. At one time this system has been sweetened to their palates by the prospect of an increase of commerce; and at another, working upon the generous spirit of the nation to take a part visibly against its interests and judgment.

‘ It may be thought strange that the politics of a government so universally esteemed to have its foundation in the security and welfare of the people, should never have extended its wisdom to the granting a few hundred thousand pounds for the settling some industrious poor families on the waste lands, for the increase of population and agriculture; whilst so many millions have been raised, in which neither the minister nor the people had any expectation of the national interests being concerned in the application of the money. If we compare the profits of our commerce, great as they are, with the amount of the annual interest of such part of the national debt as has been incurred by wars and other means, under pretence of its encouragement, it would seem that we are a nation of merchants whose pride it is to trade without profit: we allow that many families have been enriched; but how does this counterpoise the evil of the national debt, which affects the economical management of every household in the kingdom. As we have no longer the means of displaying such quixotism as formerly, it might be expected that our politics should assume an appearance more cautious and intelligible.’

In the essay on Religion we have some good observations; but the following sentence seems to include them all: ‘ So long as religion shall be submitted to the inspection of reason, its situation will be fluctuating; and if the interference of reason is excluded, it may become ridiculous.’

The essay on Politeness exhibits throughout a well-directed original mode of reasoning. The whole is so good, that, without extracting a part, we recommend it all to the perusal of our readers. That on Ennui is a lively and elegant performance;

and the one on Biography we recommend to all writers and readers of *lives*. The next, on Marriage and Gallantry, contains but little novelty. The same can hardly be said of the succeeding one on Truth, though the subject has been so frequently and so ingeniously handled. But, in order to introduce our readers to this author, who shews himself in such a variety of forms, we extract a few passages which may give the clearest view of his temper and principles. In the essay on Kings, among many apologies for the misconduct with which they are chargeable, we have the following :

‘ Kings are beings very different from other men ; their sensations are of another kind ; their exemption from the general lot of hardships, in some degree attending all other situations, makes them strangers to commiseration and sensibility ; the pleasure of friendship is exchanged for that of flattery and obsequiousness ; the nature of their education is calculated to destroy all natural disposition, at least the effects are the same as if it were a part of the plan ; they begin so early to live by rules of art, that they are in masquerade their whole lives ; whether their design be to oblige or offend, they are equally under the necessity of employing artifice. There is no other rank in life that can be so generally deified, because there is no order of men who are trained so much alike, and have such a sameness of character in so many respects.’

In the essay on Reveries the author seems to be tracing the suggestions of his own fancy. We should therefore offer an extract from it, were it not for another of more general utility, and equally descriptive of the writer. Passing over the essay on Prudence and Fortune, which contains many good things, we offer the following, with which we trust all our readers will be pleased :

‘ Never were fine feelings in greater estimation, nor more generally adopted, than in our time ; for so far from their being confined to the natural delicacy of the softer sex, as more congenial with their frame and texture, we hear of them from all quarters. Our public assemblies, for the dispatch of the national business, are even subject to their influence. The ins and outs complain, at different times, of outrages committed against their feelings by the opposite party. If politicians do really undergo such oppressions, we are forced to confess that we are at a loss to account for it. If we incline to the belief of the patriots being sometimes in earnest, which, as they are always out of place, are certainly the most irritable, we cannot, however, allow the same indulgence to those who are in ; but as it is at best a technical term, which originated in the boarding-school or at the toilette table, we may consider it as a redundancy in our language, very useless to gentlemen who speak *ore rotundo*. Not to have fine feelings, Mrs. Slipshod would say, is to be a Notmantot and eat raw flesh.

‘ The

‘ The desire of exalting our character by the affectation of an extraordinary regard for the welfare of our fellow-creatures, is a deceit which springs from unworthy motives; but to arrogate to ourselves something of this sort, as is frequently practised at the expence of these who are present, is more than uncivil, and borders on vice.

‘ If we examine the true cause of a more than common kindness of disposition, it must arise, either from some happy combination in our natural constitution, from habits impressed by those to whom we are indebted for their care and example at an early time, or it is the result of a well-determined principle to yield every assistance to the human kind, from a nice observation of the necessity there is for the exertion of our benevolence to all mankind; but the mediation from all, or either of these causes, is modest and unassuming. The truly generous person feels all the pleasure that the act of relieving another can afford, without looking for admiration, or charging any person with want of kindness; the occasion presents itself, and he does that which he readily concludes many others would have done under like circumstances.

‘ We may allow that sensibility or quickness of perception appears to be more the portion of the fair sex than the other, as appertaining to their constitutional make; from whence many women are apt to believe that tenderness of disposition belongs to them exclusively. If we duly examine the matter, it will perhaps be found to be no inherent quality arising from constitution; for we often see instances in persons from whom we might expect a greater sensibility for others; a sympathy on account of their own sufferings from sickness, or a peculiar delicacy of make, in whom this quality is counteracted by that very cause; or, in other words, when we wish to excite commiseration towards ourselves, we are generally less susceptible of bestowing it on others; some are so complaisant to themselves, as to take merit from bestowing a ‘ God bless you’ on a person in distress: such a barren display of discharging the duties of human life may pass for a civility, but is far enough from an act of benevolence where there is a power of doing something more substantial.

‘ Why are not all those who voluntarily give themselves up to tenderness in a feigned case of distress, as at a play to weep for Hecuba, equally affected by a scene of real woe? It is because the emotions are independent of any uneasiness on their own account; the tone of voice and gesture of the actor, the spectators, and the complacency of temper in which we go to see a tragedy, all assist in drawing tears from us; and some flatter themselves so far as to think that they exhibit full testimony of their being easily impressed with benevolent feelings at the sight of distress; whereas to perform that which the necessities of an unfortunate person might require, would call for activity, consolation, and our purse; troubles that would rouse our indolence, and try our merit, which we are glad to be exempt from.

‘ The bloody Sylla might weep at the recital of the misfortunes of Andromache or Priam, although he could, without emotion, hear the cries of those whom his sanguinary proscriptions had doomed to death.

‘ No one pities that in another, generally speaking, which he feels himself in no danger of suffering. Kings rarely estimate themselves as a portion of mankind; and have therefore been seldom seen to shew a superabundant anxiety for their subjects. A rich man cares not for the poor, because he is in no dread of that situation; poverty combined with sickness may make him susceptible, because he is liable to the latter: this is no censure, nor urged as a necessary consequence, but it is a bias that the frailty of our nature is but too apt to take. It will, however, be found, upon observation, that the poor are very unfeeling for each other, from another cause; they are sensible of the danger of becoming objects of commiseration, or perhaps are so, but it does not produce pity for their fellows; they are affected as if they were candidates for the same thing, and are actuated by that jealousy which such a situation excites; and they are often dejected when relief is administered to another.

‘ Pity is one of the first sensations of the human heart; our early wants incline us to it: but it is unequally bestowed in every person; the modifications are different, and belong to the character of every individual: some are moved by cries and tears, others deaf to them, yield to the sight of blood, and yet feel nothing from saying that to another, which will be remembered in anguish during life.

‘ Some men pride themselves in being inflexible; they can be just, they say, but despise clemency and humanity as weaknesses. What is generosity, humanity, clemency, and even justice, but an application of pity to the distressed, to the culpable, and to the human kind in general? Friendship is but the constant production of pity, directed to a particular object, or the exertion of our endeavours that such a person may have no wants, and be happy. It seems a peculiar kind of misfortune in our natural conformation, that we should be able to feel, with some exactness, the condition of a person in distress; but have no power to assimilate ourselves to those who are more happy than we are; but it is not without its use; for whoever will reflect on this, can never want an incitement to benevolence.

‘ In the general provision for the poor in this country, a man may appear to himself without reproach in refusing to give any to beggars; but, notwithstanding what the laws have done, there is a want of something in the execution of them that leaves many in a deplorable situation. But, without resting on this, those who have the means of assistance know that the poor are their brethren, and that, without hardening their hearts, they cannot withhold the pittance that is asked.

‘ The greatest part are vagabonds—we allow it; but we are too well acquainted with the evils of life, not to know that there are many circumstances which may unavoidably reduce an honest man to such a state: sometimes even nice sensibility and a laudable pride may drive him from those who had been accustomed to consider him with respect; and how can we tell but that this unknown, who in the name of God asks for a morsel of bread, may be this honest man, ready to perish through misery, and that our refusal may drive him to despair.

‘ A trifle,

‘ A trifle, though no real succour, is however a consolation, is a courtesy, and a testimony that we take a part in their misery: whatever we may think of these unfortunate wretches, we owe something to ourselves, to our ability from what Providence has put into our hands, to our rank in life, and to the example we may be to others.

‘ We ought not to encourage any to be beggars; but when they are so, a small assistance to their wants may preserve them from being thieves: the giving a trifle may have this two-fold good effect, it may save oneself from the reproach of having committed a fault, and the life of the person who implores our aid; for no one can tell how near the poor person may be to extremity, from the operation of the passions, or the want of bodily refreshment. It may be said, that the generous are often imposed upon by an affected appearance of distress, by mere acting; we allow it; yet those who have often thought a crown well bestowed on a Garrick, a Pritchard, and a Clive, will not think much of a few pence to an under-actor.

‘ Pity is sometimes a weakness arising from a natural defect in the constitution, and is then generally exhausted in words and grimace; which, as we observed before, sometimes imposes so far on persons thus constituted, as to persuade them that they are acting above human nature, when they display their tenderness alike to cats, dogs, monkeys, and the human race; they have a tear for all, as it may be required; but if such persons would take the pains to examine themselves, they might discover that they are of a snivelling constitution, and that the tears they so liberally bestow, are really an accommodation to themselves, and of no use to any other creature.

‘ There are many persons whose compassion is unbounded, without any mixture of weakness, not only to their fellow-creatures, but to every part of animated nature, upon the principles of pure benevolence; and to such the sight of distress spontaneously creates endeavours to relieve it, which are attended with the highest gratification that the mind is susceptible of: to relieve the distressed of the poor and wretched is the only act by which we can pretend to imitate divine goodness.’

This closes the essays. We have next a letter on education, extremely valuable, though, in our opinion, not entirely unexceptionable—a concise account of the English constitution—a chronology of the history of France—and an abstract of the first volume of Blackstone’s Commentaries follow. These three pieces seem, as we before observed, charts to assist the author in his studies. They are, for the most part, well done, and may be useful to any who are engaged in similar pursuits; to all others they would prove uninteresting. The volume closes with a translation of M. de Pauw’s letter on some vicissitudes of our globe. This letter was written in the year 1764, and contains many valuable remarks; but, like most of the French productions, a little too dogmatical. Among other objections,

we wish the author had not contented himself with asserting that Etna had been burning from the time of Hesiod and Homer. But if he thought such an assertion sufficient, we should have been gratified by a note from the translator.

The second volume contains fewer, and, for the most part, less interesting pieces. The first is called the History of the Enterprises and Settlements of the Goths, Vandals, and other barbarous nations. This is an abstract of that part of Mr. Gibbon's History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. Probably the author thought it might assist his memory while perusing that elaborate work; but we are at a loss to see the use it can be of to his readers. The piece next in order is a selection of various passages from *Les Recherches philosophiques sur l'Amerique*, by M. de Pauw—on Climate and its Effect—the Anthropophagi—some extraordinary Customs—Poisoned Arrows. These are well selected and translated. If it were an original work, or if the translator had added any thing of his own, we could make many remarks on the last section on poisoned arrows.—Of the Egyptians and Chinese—and of the Spartans and Lacedemonians. The object of the first is to shew how little similitude there is between those two ancient nations; and of the latter, to place the institutions of Lycurgus, and the manners of the Spartans, in a new light. They are valuable papers.

Having at the outset given a general opinion of these volumes, we shall conclude with observing, that the purchaser will have a fair value for his money, besides furthering a charity the most unexceptionable of any for which this nation is so justly celebrated.

ART. V. *The Old Manor House; a Novel.* By Charlotte Smith. pp. 1313. 12mo. 4 vols. 14s. sewed. Bell. London, 1793.

ANOTHER novel has been produced by the prolific pen of Mrs. Smith—and prolific it is to the best purposes—to the maintenance of a large family—to the rearing and educating her children—to the formation of their hearts to virtue, and to the improvement of their minds in useful knowledge. With such intentions, and with such views, who but must wish her success, and who but must rejoice to hear that those wishes are not ineffectual? From this short digression we return to the subject before us. *The Old Manor House* is one of those novels that must receive general applause, inasmuch as it is adapted to the level of domestic life. There are no noble personages whose

whose distresses we pity a moment and then forget, because we cannot assimilate them to any scenes in which we have been, are, or can be engaged. It contains a relation of the sufferings of a virtuous family, but moderately endowed with the blessings of fortune. Mr. Somerive, descended from a very wealthy family, marries a lady of humble rank, but of exalted virtue. The loss of the favour of his rich relatives is the immediate consequence of this union. Possessing, however, a patrimonial estate of five hundred pounds a year, Mr. Somerive takes it into his own hands, and sits down with that rich endowment, which the more wealthy part of his family wanted, contentment. Five children are the produce of his marriage—two sons and three daughters. The eldest son, cherishing the idea that he should inherit the large estates belonging to Mrs. Rayland, an unmarried lady, his cousin, commences a career of extravagance, in which his father finds it impossible to arrest him. The second son, Orlando Somerive, a youth of excellent endowments, is taken, from motives of caprice, into the protection of Mrs. Rayland, who keeps him at Rayland Hall, without, however, making any specific promise, or giving even a distant hint, of providing for him in future. Orlando, during his residence at the Hall, falls in love with the niece of the favourite companion of Mrs. Rayland. His father, discovering this connexion, wishing to put an end to it, and at the same time to bring his relative to an explicit avowal of her intentions with regard to his son, informs her of his intention to accept an offer of a commission in the army for him. She approves of the intention, and takes upon herself the charge of furnishing him with the necessary equipments. Orlando's regiment is ordered to America; and from this epoch commence the sufferings of the Somerive family—the eldest daughter elopes with an officer in the same regiment—they proceed to America, and are supposed to be lost at sea—the eldest son, a gamester and an abandoned profligate, affords no present comfort, and promises no future consolation to his family—Orlando, the excellent Orlando! taken by the Indians in an expedition from Saratoga to penetrate to New-York, is, upon the evidence of a Black servant, said to have been slain by the Indians. The climax of distress thus completed, the father sinks beneath the pressure, and dies heart-broken. The eldest son sells the patrimonial estate, and squanders the produce in riot, gaming, and every species of extravagance. Mrs. Rayland dies, and leaves her vast fortune to the church, without noticing her distressed relations. The widow of Mr. Somerive, and her two daughters, remove to London, where they procure a wretched subsistence from the galling charity of purse-proud relations. The eldest son, having wasted his means, is thrown into the Fleet Prison.

Prison. Orlando, in the wilds of Canada, meets with a humane Indian, his wounds are cured, and himself permitted to return to Quebec. Being sent by the governor in a vessel to New-York, he is taken by a French privateer, and carried to France. From France he procures a passage to his native country. Without money, or the means of procuring any, he is forced to walk to his native place. He proceeds first to Rayland Hall—every thing is silent—in desolation and in ruin. He finds Mrs. Rayland to be dead, and an old man and woman the only inhabitants of the castle. Disappointed and weary he hastens to his father's house—discovers a new family inhabiting it—his father dead—his mother and his sisters dispersed no one knew where. His agony and distress may be imagined. Discovering at length that his mother was in London, he hastens to the capital, and observing her distress and his brother's extravagance, immediately sells his commission to support the former, and to liberate the latter. Finding too that some doubts had been entertained of Mrs. Rayland's will, he commences an action against the possessors of her estates, and, after much trouble, discovers Mrs. Lennard, the housekeeper, by whose means at length he learns that a duplicate of another will, which bestowed the estates on him, was concealed in Rayland-Hall. He obtains possession of it, and his wife (for he had, previous to this discovery, married Monimia, the object of his early affections), his mother, his sisters, the eldest of whom arrives in England, having escaped the dangers of the storm in which she and her husband were supposed to be lost, are all made happy. Such is the outline of the story of the *Old Manor House*; a story which has afforded us much pleasure. It is equal to any of the former novels of Mrs. Smith, except *Desmond*. We have again had occasion to remark Mrs. Smith's excellence in the descriptive and in the pathetic—we have subjoined two extracts in proof of the justice of our remark:

• On the 20th of April, 1778, Orlando, the French Canadians, and the Wolf hunter leading a party of five-and-twenty Indian warriors, set out for Quebec—the Indians carrying great quantities of furs, the spoils of the animals they had taken during the winter. Of these Orlando carried his share; and now, re-animated by the soothing expectation of being restored to his country, he endeavoured to conform himself to the modes of his savage hosts, and was indeed become almost as expert a hunter, in their own methods, as the most active among them.

• They had travelled some hundred miles, and were within a few days journey of Quebec, when it was resolved by the wolf-hunter to encamp for some days in a spot particularly favourable to hunting. This determination, however unpleasing to Orlando, he knew was

not

not to be disputed; and, though every delay was death to him, he was compelled to submit to what no remonstrance would avert.

The camp, therefore, was formed; and if any local circumstance could have reconciled him to the procrastination of a journey on which all the hopes of his deliverance from this wretched and tedious captivity depended, it was the very uncommon beauty of the scenery amid which these huts were raised.

This was on the banks of the river St. Lawrence, at a spot where it was about a mile and a quarter over. The banks where they encamped were of an immense height, composed of limestone and calcined shells; and an area of about an hundred yards was between the edge of this precipice, which hung over the river, and a fine forest of trees, so magnificent and stately as to sink the woods of Norway into insignificance. On the opposite side of the river lay an extensive savannah, alive with cattle, and coloured with such a variety of swamp plants, that their colour, even at that distance, detracted something from the vivid green of the new-sprung grass: beyond this the eye was lost in a rich and various landscape, quite unlike any thing that European prospects offer; and the acclivity on which the tents stood sinking very suddenly on the left, the high cliffs there gave place to a cypress swamp, or low ground, entirely filled with these trees; while on the right the rocks, rising suddenly and sharply, were clothed with wood of various species; the ever-green oak, the scarlet-oak, the tulip-tree, and magnolia, seemed bound together by festoons of flowers, some resembling the convolvuluses of our gardens, and others the various sorts of clematis, with vignenias, and the Virginian creeper; some of these already in bloom, others only in the first tender foliage of spring; beneath these fragrant wreaths that wound about the trees, tufts of rhododendron and azalea, of andromedas and calmias, grew in the most luxuriant beauty; and strawberries already ripening or even ripe, peeped forth among the rich vegetation of grass and flowers. On this side all was cheerful and lovely—on the other mournful and gloomy; the latter suited better with the disposition Orlando was in; and he reared his little hut on that side next the cypress swamp, and under the covert of the dark fir-trees that waved over it. They had been here three days, when, with the usual capriciousness of his country, the wolf-hunter determined to recommence their journey—a circumstance that gave Orlando some satisfaction; and he went to his couch of bear-skin with more disposition to sleep than he had felt for some time, and, contrary to his usual custom, soon sunk to repose; and his dreams were of his *Montimia*, soothing and consolatory.

There is in America a night hawk, whose cry is believed by the Indians always to portend some evil to those who hear it. In war, they affirm that if a chief falls, the funeral cry of this bird announces it to his distant survivors. Ignorance, the mother of superstition, has so deeply impressed this on the minds of the Indians, that it is an article of their faith; and Orlando had seen some of the most courageous and fierce among them depressed and discouraged by hearing the shriek of this bird of woe near their tents.

From

From the most delicious dream of Rayland-Hall, and of Monimia given to him by the united consent of Mrs. Rayland and his father, he was suddenly awakened by the loud shriek of this messenger of supposed ill tidings; piercing; and often repeated, it was echoed back from the woods; and Orlando, once roused to a comparison between his visionary and his real situation, was alive to the keenest sensations of sorrow. The hateful noise still continued, and he went out of his tent, for he knew any farther attempt to sleep would be vain—Alas! the turrets of Rayland-Hall were no longer painted on his imagination—instead of them, he looked perpendicularly down on a hollow, where the dark knots of cypresses seemed, by the dim light of early morning, which threatened storms, to represent groups of supernatural beings in funeral habits; and over them he saw, slowly sailing amidst the mist that arose from the swamp two or three of the birds which had so disturbed him. Great volumes of heavy fog seemed to be rolling from the river, and the sun appeared red and lurid through the heavy atmosphere. Orlando endeavoured to shake off the uncomfortable sensations which, in despite of his reason, hung about him; but he rather indulged than checked them, in throwing upon paper the following

S O N N E T.

‘ILL-omen’d bird! whose cries portentous float
O’er yon savannah with the mournful wind,
While as the Indian hears your piercing note
Dark dread of future evil fills his mind—
Wherefore with early lamentations break
The dear delusive visions of repose?
Why from so short felicity awake
My wounded senses to substantial woes?
O’er my sick soul, thus rous’d from transient rest
Pale Superstition sheds her influence drear,
And to my shuddering fancy would suggest,
Thou com’st to speak of every woe I fear—
But aid me, Heaven! my real ills to bear,
Nor let my spirit yield to phantoms of despair.’

‘The ingratitude and selfishness of the man whom he had left gave him an additional pang; but it was only momentary, for grief of a more corrosive nature overwhelmed him; and when he arrived at the door of the house he proposed entering, his knees trembled under him; his looks were wild and haggard; and he was incapable of considering that the house was now in possession of strangers. He passed into the yard, which was surrounded by the offices; but all was changed; and he stood in the stupefaction of despair, without having any precise idea of what he intended to do, till he was roused from this torpid state by a maid servant, who, hearing the dogs bark, came out and inquired what he did there.

Orlando answered incoherently, that it was his father’s house—that he came to look for his father. The girl in terror left him; and,

and, believing him either a madman or a robber, but rather the former, ran in to her mistress, and, carefully locking the kitchen door, informed her that there was a crazy man in the yard. This young woman, who was the mistress of one of Stockton's friends, to whom he had lent the house, wanted neither understanding nor humanity, however deficient she might be in other virtues; and knowing the natural propensity of the vulgar to terrify themselves and others, she called to a man, who was at work in the garden, to follow her, and then went to speak herself to the person whom her servant had represented as a lunatic.

She found the unhappy young man seated on a pile of wood near the door, his arms resting on his knees and concealing his face. The noise of her opening the door and approaching him seemed not to rouse him from his mournful reverie: but she spoke gently to him; and Orlando, looking up, shewed a countenance on which extreme agony of mind was strongly painted, but which was still handsome and interesting, and appeared to belong to one who had seen better days. 'Is there any thing, Sir, you wish to know? Can I be of any service to you?' These few words, spoken in a pleasing female voice, had an immediate effect in softening the heart of Orlando, petrified by affliction. He burst into tears; and rising said—'Ah, Madam! forgive my intrusion, forgive me, who am a stranger where I had once a home. This house was my father's!—Here I left him when, seventeen months since, I went to America—here I left my father, my mother, and three sisters—and all, all are gone!' He lost his voice, and leaned against a tree near him.

The young person, extremely affected by the genuine expression of grief, and convinced that he was no madman, now invited him into the parlour; and Orlando, unknowing what he did, followed her.

Every object that he saw was a dagger to his heart. As Philip had sold to Stockton every thing as it remained at his father's death, a great part of the furniture was the same. Startled at every step he took by the recollection of some well known object, he entered the parlour more dead than alive, and pale as a corpse, and with quivering lips he attempted to speak, but could not. The young woman saw his agitation, and pouring him out a large glass of wine, besought him to drink it, and to compose himself, again repeating her offers of kindness. He put back the glass—'I thank you, Madam, but I cannot drink—I cannot swallow.—That picture,' added he, fixing his eyes wildly on a landscape over the chimney—'that picture belonged to my father; he used, I remember, to value it highly—I beg your pardon, Madam—I know not what I proposed by coming hither, unless it were to procure a direction to my mother and sisters. Where my father is I know too well, though I believe,' continued he, putting his hand to his forehead, 'that I said when I first came into the court-yard, that I looked for him—Can you, Madam, tell me where I can find the part of my family that does survive?'

The young woman, with increasing interest, told him that she had been there only a few weeks, and was quite a stranger in the country;

country; but that, if he could recollect any person thereabouts likely to be better informed, she would send a servant to fetch them, or with any message he might direct.'

Mrs. Smith has not availed herself as much as she might have done of an opportunity of reprobating that greatest of all national evils, the American war; that evil, which released the souls of one hundred thousand Britons to complain to their God of the effects of a system of politics equally ill-judged and nefarious—that evil, which has imposed, in *omne volubilis ævum*, a burthen on the shoulders of the present and the future race. Perhaps, however, she means to atone for this fault in another novel, which she threatens, called the *Wanderings of Warwick*—who married the eldest daughter of Mr. Somerville, served in the American war, and traversed the whole continent of Europe. We expect this novel with no small degree of impatience.

ART. VI. *Sermons on the Divinity of Christ.* By Robert Hawker, Vicar of the Parish of Charles, Plymouth, and formerly of Magdalen-Hall, Oxford. pp. 364. 8vo. 5s. boards. Deighton. London, 1792.

DR. Hawker, in a very modest preface, apologises for the publication of his '*Sermons on the Divinity of Christ*;' but surely no excuse was necessary for the publication of sermons on such a subject, at a season when every attempt is made by unitarian haughtiness, and philosophy, 'falsely so called,' to reduce our blessed Redeemer to a level with poor frail mortals, and thus deprive the humble Christian of his dearest hopes and consolations. We unite with Dr. Hawker in the firm persuasion, that to assert the dignity of our Lord and Master (particularly at the present crisis) is the indispensable duty of 'every faithful servant of Jesus, whatever inconveniences he may suffer in so just a cause.' Pusillanimous, indeed, must that man be, and unworthy his profession, who would suppress his sentiments, in a case of so great magnitude, from any apprehension of critical severity—from any dread of the insulting sneer—who would abandon what he deems his duty, repelled by the sarcasm of contempt. Not such is the ingenious and pious author before us: he 'hath not so learned Christ!' Though dissident of his own abilities, yet trusting in the strength of his argument, he comes forward with a full conviction of the truths which he has undertaken to defend, and with an animating hope that he shall be enabled, by the blessing of God, to convince others; and thus 'to guide the uninformed, or confirm the faith of the believer.'

In

In his introductory discourse on these words, 'What think ye of Christ? Whose son is he?' Dr. Hawker observes, with equal strength and elegance, 'Every age hath been distinguished by some peculiar mode of hostility against the principles of our holy faith. By open attack and insidious design, the false friend and the professed foe, have alike aimed their blows to effect the ruin of the church. But we know who it is that hath said, "his church is founded on a rock, against which the gates of hell shall not prevail." The enemies which have come forward against Christianity, have only broken their arrows against its impenetrable shield, and, tired of the unequal combat, have withdrawn from the field in sullen silence. It would, however, be in vain to expect, that all opposition should cease. Providence permits the existence of error, perhaps with a view to accomplish some greater good. By this means the truth, when discovered, is placed on a more firm and sure foundation, and in the mean time it answers the necessary ends of trial to exercise the faith of the true believer. Besides, while the corrupt passions of the human mind remain unreformed, there will be always some who will find an interest in opposing the pure system of morality contained in the gospel; and, while religion is sought for by others through philosophy and vain deceit, after the tradition of men and not after Christ, the pride of reason will not easily bend to the humbleness and docility of little children, *which* is so necessary to the reception of those doctrines by *which* the Christian faith is peculiarly known. From both these causes, therefore, the religion of Jesus will be always sure to meet with opposition. The controversy of the present hour seems to be particularly of this latter kind. Under the specious pretence that reason alone is competent to determine the measure of religious faith, a certain class of men have presumed to analyse the several parts of revelation by this standard, and have peremptorily rejected every thing beyond the power of reason to account for, as impossible to have proceeded from God. Thus, with a rash and bold hand, they have torn from the gospel all the sacred mysteries of our holy faith, reduced the whole to a mere system of ethics, and degraded the divine Author of our salvation to a character no higher than that of a moral teacher; the equal of Socrates or Confucius. Nay, to such a height hath this doctrine advanced, that he who hath the dangerous honour of preeminence in this opinion hath declared, that the sentiments even of an apostle are invalid and of no weight with him.'—We by no means approve the conclusion of this extract. Of such notices Dr. Priestley makes his boast. Like the

the wretch who set fire to the temple of Diana, it is scarcely uncharitable to say, that he talks, and writes, and acts, only with the view of gaining a name. But his ambition is mixed with meaner vices; nor would we honour him so far, as to place him on a footing with that character—to whom we owe the sentiment:

‘ Better to reign in hell, than serve in heaven.’

In the second sermon Dr. Hawker produces the evidences of Christ's preexistence—the text, John xvii. 5, ‘ The glory which I had with thee before the world was.’ This is a very well written discourse. His inquiry, in the third sermon, whether any traces can be found of our Lord's personal appearance in the world previous to his incarnation (on the text, John v. 39, ‘ Search the scriptures—they are they which testify of me’), is well conducted: the result of it must be satisfactory, we think, to every unprejudiced mind. The fourth sermon, ‘ On the Testimony of the Prophets concerning the Character under which the Messiah was to appear’ (Acts xxviii. 23, ‘ Persuading them concerning Jesus, both out of the law of Moses, and out of the prophets’), hath less novelty than the last two, from the nature of the subject: but it is written with the same clearness, in regard to the distribution of the argument, and the same general perspicuity, indeed, as characterises the rest. In the fifth and sixth sermons the evidences of Christ's divinity, during his incarnation, are considered at large, the texts, John i. 14, ‘ And the Word was made flesh, and dwelt among us; and we beheld his glory, the glory as of the only begotten of the Father, full of grace and truth’—John vii. 46, ‘ Never man spake like this man.’—‘ The Testimony of the Apostles to the Character of their Master’ (seventh sermon—text, Matt. xvii. 15. ‘ But whom say ye that I am?’), carries strong conviction with it. And in the eighth (the closing discourse) where the author judiciously recurs to the text that leads the way (in the introductory discourse), we are struck, on a review of the whole, by many pathetic appeals to the conscience and the heart:

‘ If (says Dr. Hawker in a strain of the most impassioned oratory), if the Christian's Lord be not divine, farewell to all the hopes of the faithful! His consolations are no more! Then all the gracious promises of religion with which the anxious mind, when smitten with a sense of guilt, sought a requiem, are done away; and the law of God, strict and unalterable in its demands, stands forth before the guilty conscience, arrayed in all its terrors. To what refuge shall the awakened

awakened sinner how fly, or in what sacrifice can he again place confidence? I thought, he will say, my soul secure in the expectation of pardon to my sins, through the meritorious death of my blessed Saviour; upon the terms of faith, repentance, and newness of life. I understood that the apostles of Christ had instructed the world in this doctrine, that God had set forth the Redeemer as a propitiation; and that the Son of God himself had declared, that 'he came to give his life a ransom for many!' But if this be all a delusion, I am robbed of my best comforts, and am without hope. Tell me not of the virtues of human nature; for how shall any man build his hopes of acceptance with his Maker upon the sandy foundation of the purity of his own life? Alas! my very best deeds are largely tinged with a mixture of infirmity. I see a mark of imperfection strongly appearing in every page of my life. And, for the errors and intentional sins of nature, should the Lord be extreme to mark all that is done amiss, who may abide it? And how then by the deeds of the law shall any flesh be justified? And what is repentance? a patched up, blemished, and imperfect repentance, made up of alternate sorrow and sin. To-day feeling the compunction of guilt; to-morrow falling again; perhaps into the same, or similar transgressions; the next day renewing the serious impression, and soon after giving fresh proofs of human infirmity; and thus going on through life in the succession of offences and contrition; sometimes humbling the soul under the mighty hand of God, from a conscious unworthiness, but more frequently forgetting that there is a God which judgeth the earth. Can any man be presumptuous enough to satisfy his mind that heaven must be the natural reward of such a train of conduct?

From these specimens our readers have doubtless conceived a very favourable opinion of Dr. Hawker's discourses: for ourselves, we cannot but express our approbation of them in the most unqualified terms; whether we consider their subject, than which none more interesting can engage attention; the manner in which it is treated; the arrangement of the materials; the style; or the language. And with sincere pleasure we congratulate the people of Plymouth on the honour such a gentleman as Dr. Hawker must confer on their town; at the same time that we recommend him, in the line of his profession, to the regards of the bishop of his diocese; since to place in a conspicuous light the merits of a deserving clergyman, is to give stability to religion, by adding a new pillar to the fabric of the church.

ART. VII. *A Treatise on Gonorrhœa Virulenta and Lues Venerea.*
By Benjamin Bell, Member of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of
Ireland and Edinburgh, one of the Surgeons to the Royal Infirmary,
and Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. pp. 1002. 8vo.
 2 vols. 12s. boards. J. Watson and Co. Edinburgh; and
 J. Murray, London. 1793.

IN these days, when most of the numerous publications with which the press perpetually teems are more beholden to manual than mental labour, the scissars being often a more useful and better employed instrument in the book-making art than the pen, to meet with the works of an author that really deserves the name, is a satisfaction which a reviewer only can fully appreciate. The fashion or the folly of the times either require or encourage almost every meddler to attempt a recommendation of himself to public notice and employment, by means of essays, treatises, and observations; and in no department of the healing art has this procedure been more prevalent than in that which forms the subject of the work now under consideration.

It is not to be expected, on a subject which has employed the attention and ingenuity of so many, both speculative and practical, men of the medical profession for centuries, that a general treatise on all the forms of the disease, and its treatment under every variety of symptom and constitution, should possess or lay claim to entire originality. When, however, as in the work before us, an author, by attentively considering the various symptoms as they occur in an almost infinitely multiplied series of modifications, gives an improved history of the disease; when, by judiciously and dispassionately considering and employing the many proposed modes of relief, he improves the practice or method of cure, on the only rational foundation, experience; when, amid the vast farrago of prescriptions that have been vauntingly held forth as infallible specifics, he selects and points out, on experimental and reasonable grounds, the safest and most efficacious remedies, as applicable to the various states and symptoms of the disease, and as modified by the constitution and habits of the patient; when, without any excessive predilection for theoretic speculation, especially on a subject where the very primary axioms on which a just theory may be founded are still unknown, he gives such an explanation of the symptoms and cure as may safely be admitted to arrange experience, though not to regulate practice; when these objects have been attained, the writer is certainly entitled to receive praise for the benefit derivable from his instruction, and to escape censure for any failure

failure in his attempts to elucidate those parts of his subject which do not, hitherto at least, admit of success.

These reflections have been occasioned by an attentive consideration of the work now before us, which is given to the world by the author as the result of many years employed in patient observation and extensive practice; from personal knowledge we can add, that the latter has been deservedly successful. It is intended as a continuation or sequel to the system of surgery which he has already published. We are informed by the author, that it was once meant to have formed a part of that excellent work, and that his intentions were prevented by the announcement of several publications on the same subject, from writers of eminence; and that, in consequence of the delay, he has taken every opportunity to profit by the merits or errors of these performances.

The work extends to two volumes, each of which contains a distinct and separate portion of the subject. The first volume contains the history, treatment, and consequences, of gonorrhœa; and the second gives a complete account of the symptoms and cure of lues. To each volume an appendix is subjoined, containing the various formulæ that are mentioned or recommended in the course of these two parts. Of the two volumes we shall speak separately.

To the first volume a chapter is prefixed, in which Mr. Bell endeavours to determine a point of great moment, both in a speculative and practical view, and on which many eminent writers have been much divided in opinion; whether gonorrhœa and lues are caused by the same contagion differently applied, or if they are produced by specifically different contagions? or, in other words, whether they are separate diseases, or only different modifications or states of the same disease? In this disquisition our author seems very successfully to have established his opinion of their specific difference, in opposition to the arguments of those who contend for the specific identity of the two diseases. He contends, that the opposite hypothesis, which has lately been strongly supported by the ingenious Mr. J. Hunter, is founded on such futile distinctions as hardly to bear even the semblance of argument; and that the few solitary facts, which are brought in support of the reasoning, are liable to so many objections, from the equivocal nature of their nature, more especially when considered as instituted for the direct purpose of strengthening a preconceived and favourite theory; as not to deserve being admitted in proof. The surface of the body must be fancifully supposed divided into secreting and non-secreting surfaces, and surfaces of an intermediate nature: each of these, especially the first and the last, is supposed liable to the affection of the same

venereal virus in a different manner: and, according as it happens to be applied to the one or to the other, the one or the other modification of the disease is supposed to be produced.

To shew the fallacy of the reasoning on which the identity of the diseases is founded, Mr. Bell takes great pains, and is very successful in the instances which he adduces, in support of the opposite opinion, of their specific difference. He narrates cases of both diseases, so situated, on the different kinds of surfaces, as completely to overturn the whole hypothesis, and all the consequences which have been endeavoured to be established by its means. He shews, historically, that each of the diseases has been known to exist in particular countries or districts, totally independent and entirely unconnected with the other, for a considerable length of time. Except in the circumstance of the manner in which the diseases are usually acquired, and the ordinary seat of their primary symptoms, he contends that there does not exist the smallest resemblance between them. Their symptoms, cure, and consequences, are essentially dissimilar in every particular: buboes, indeed, occasionally arise in both; but buboes, which are inflamed lymphatic glands, are produced by a great variety of irritating causes, and arise from the absorption of many different kinds of morbid or acrid matters. Mr. Bell distinctly shews that gonorrhœa often affects the glands and prepuce; and that, on the contrary, lues frequently produces chancre within the urethra; both of which are totally inconsistent with the idea of their being the same specific disease, solely modified by the place to which the contagion has been accidentally applied. In further proof of the absolutely specific difference between them, he adduces some cases, in which the virus of gonorrhœa had been translated from the urethra, through the medium of the circulation, to other and distant parts of the body, such as the inside of the nose and the eyelids, without superinducing any general constitutional affection, which must necessarily have occurred, had the two diseases been occasioned by the same specific contagion. Mr. Bell ends his reasoning, which to us appears extremely well founded, as follows:

‘ As a farther support of this opinion, I may add, that if the two diseases were of the same nature, and produced by the same infection, the remedies proving useful in the one might be expected to prove likewise so in the other. Instead of this, we find that those upon which we depend with most certainty in gonorrhœa, have no effect whatever in the cure of syphilis; while mercury, which is the only remedy, as we have observed above, upon which any dependence can be placed for the cure of syphilis, does not, in gonorrhœa, produce any advantage. Nay that, in some cases, it evidently does harm.

• We also know that gonorrhœa will often terminate whether any remedy be employed or not, merely by moderate living, and keeping the parts regularly clean. The disease by this alone will, in most instances, become gradually milder, till at last it will disappear entirely. No such things, however, happens in lues venerea. In this, as we have already remarked, even the mildest symptom becomes daily worse, unless mercury be employed; nor will any practitioner of experience trust the cure even of the slightest chancre to any other remedy.

• Upon this evidence alone, of the method of cure of the two diseases being so essentially different, we might I think conclude, that they are different in their nature, and that they proceed from different contagions. Were they of the same nature, and proceeding from the same cause, it is not possible to conceive that any medicine would act as a certain cure for the one, and do harm in the other; and yet every practitioner will admit, that mercury is the only remedy hitherto known upon which we can depend for the cure of lues venerea, while it evidently often does harm, as I have already observed, in gonorrhœa.

The rest of the first volume is divided into two chapters, and contains the whole history of the symptoms, causes, cure, and consequences, of gonorrhœa. The former of these, which he names the second chapter of the work, is divided into eleven sections, each of which is appropriated to a separate subdivision of the subject of gonorrhœa; and the latter, which he calls the third chapter, is subdivided into eleven sections, each treating of a different consequence, occasionally flowing from that disease. We refer to the work itself for the particulars of these two chapters; but, as some excellent practical distinctions and directions occur, especially in the early sections of the second chapter, we shall give some general account of these. He considers gonorrhœa as a specific inflammation, primarily seated on the internal surface of the urethra, and unattended with ulceration. The history of the symptoms is divided into four stages, or progressive states of the disease: in the first, the urethra only is affected, and the inflammation seldom reaches above an inch, or an inch and an half, upwards from the opening; in the second stage, Cowper's glands and their ducts become affected; in the third stage, the disease reaches to the prostate gland and the neighbouring parts of the urethra; and, in the fourth stage, the inflammation affects the internal surface of the bladder, generally about its neck, but sometimes extending over the whole, and even proceeding along the ureters to the kidneys. In treating of the prognosis, he takes occasion to point out the practical use of the foregoing distinctions; observing that, with proper management on the part of the practitioner and patient, the

disease, in its first stage, will seldom continue a fortnight, and is often removed in two or three days; whereas, in the other three stages, when the disease has advanced to the deeper parts of the urethra, the cure is always tedious, and often extremely doubtful.

The practical utility of these distinctions is farther illustrated in the sections which treat of the method of cure in the different stages. Having established, in the general preliminary observations, that the disease is entirely local, he proceeds to consider the general indications of cure, which must likewise be topical applications to the parts affected; and in the employment of these he establishes the necessity of carefully discriminating between the several stages of the disease, especially between the first or simple state, in which the forepart only of the urethra is affected, and the more advanced stages, where glands and their secretory ducts are involved in the inflammation, as the use of astringent injections, which prudently employed readily cure the first, are sure to produce mischief in the other stages: on this account he divides his account of the method of cure into four parts or sections, corresponding with the distinctions he had established in describing the stages of the disease.

In the first or simple stage, when the inflammation and discharge are confined to the inner surface of the membrane of the urethra, and seldom extend above an inch, or at most an inch and an half, from the orifice upwards, he trusts entirely to the use of astringent injections, recommending a moderate, but not low, diet, and abstinence from all violent exercise. When the inflammatory symptoms run high, blood-letting, either topical or general, one or two gentle laxatives, and a low cooling regimen, are necessary. The injection which he chiefly trusts to, consists of two grains of sulphat of zinc, or white vitriol, dissolved in one ounce of distilled water; but the proportions must be varied according to circumstances, making it always of such strength as to produce some degree of pain and irritation in the parts, but never to carry these effects to any inconvenient degree. Besides this formula, he gives several others, for which we must refer to the appendix to the first volume, and recommends varying the form whenever the one first used does not speedily produce a cure or alleviation of the symptoms. He likewise advises the injection to be employed seven or eight times a day, instead of two or three times, as used by most practitioners. There is, in his opinion, only one case in which this plan of treatment by injection is not advisable; when one or both of the testes are inflamed. In this state of the disease he recommends to discontinue the injection; not that it is apt to increase

increase this inflammation, but that it counteracts the restoration of the running, one of the most effectual remedies for removing the inflamed and tumefied state of the testes.

In the second stage of the disease, when Cowper's glands and their ducts are affected by the inflammation, a very different plan of treatment must be followed. This stage is easily discriminated from the former; all the symptoms are more severe; the ardour, tension of the whole body of the penis, and chordee, are greatly more distressing; the discharge is generally very fetid, of an ugly green colour, and often tinged with blood; it is found, on examination, to proceed from a much higher seat than in the former stage; usually from about the perineum: in this place the patient complains of considerable pain, especially on pressure; and one or more small tumours are perceptible by an attentive examination of this part, proceeding from inflammation and enlargement of Cowper's glands. Though this is sometimes preceded by the former stage, which may then be supposed to have degenerated into it, yet it frequently takes place from the very commencement of the disease, and is probably owing either to a more than ordinary predisposition to inflammatory diathesis in the habit of the patient, or to improper management; such as violent exercise, hard-drinking, immoderate venery, or over use of very strong astringent or irritating injections. In this stage it is necessary to abstain from all injection; and the principal intention is to lessen inflammation, and to prevent suppuration in the tumefied glands. This is best accomplished by strict antiphlogistic regimen, bloodletting, especially the topical application of leeches, and the use of saturnine lotions and poultices; sometimes even blisters to the part have been found useful. Should the glands suppurate, the practitioner is advised to proceed as soon as possible to lay open largely; to prevent the suppurated tumour from bursting into the urethra, which becomes a most distressing accident for the patient, and a most difficult affair for the practitioner, by inducing a train of symptoms that are excessively painful, and extremely difficult to remove.

Thus much seems sufficient for conveying a general idea of the plan adopted by Mr. Bell in arranging and executing the first part of his work: we must refer to the book itself for the history and method of treatment of the two other stages of gonorrhœa; of the numerous consequences, which are apt, according to circumstances in the habit, conduct, or management, of the patient, to flow from this disease in its several stages; and for the difference in the symptoms of the disorder in females, with the necessary treatment. In a future review we shall proceed to give an account of the second volume, which describes the symptoms, cure, and consequences, of lues.

ART. VIII. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity. Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Volume X. pp. 502. 4to. 11. 1s. White. London, 1792.*

[*Continued from our last.*]

IX. *Druidical and other British Remains in Cumberland, described by Hayman Rooke, Esq. F. A. S.*

THIS contains an account of a field in Englewood forest, 'towards the middle' of which, 'the earth has been 'thrown up in a circular form, with a sloping bank of twelve 'feet; the diameter of the top, which has a flat and level surface, is sixty-three feet; here there appeared to have been a 'circle of erect stones.' This 'elevated circle' Mr. Rooke calls 'a druid temple.' But his own researches prove it, unknown to himself, to have been merely a burying-place. In digging within it, he found several chests of stone, the original coffins of our fathers, containing bones. These coffins prove the design of the circle, beyond all possibility of doubt to any man who *thinks* at all. But antiquaries, with the dreams of druidism in their heads, are perpetually busy in making common works of British antiquity to be druidical, and consecrating sepulchres into temples. This was a family burying-place to some British baron of the neighbourhood, and at no very early period of the British antiquity. The flat stones, of which these subterraneous tombs were composed, had been all 'shaped 'and dressed, and fitted close at the sides without cement.' Under some of the skulls in them, 'was found a lump (about as big 'as a man's fist) of concreted metallic particles resembling gold; 'but whether it is a composition of art or nature, seems to me 'doubtful.' These facts evince the monuments to be British, but at a period of the British history, when the art of masonry was a little understood, and when metals began to be used in the island, This metal we suppose to be the same, as forms the coins of Cunobeline; a composition, we believe, of copper and tin. Mr. Rooke says, he has 'sent up a piece for the inspection of the society.' And, as 'it is evident that the bodies could not be inhumed' at full length, 'within so small a 'space' as any of these chests contains; the 'concretion' of the 'metallic particles' is ascribable to the action of fire in burning the bodies. The metal therefore was no 'amulet,' as Mr. Rooke fancies, but some ornament of the person, a brooch at the breast, or a buckle to the girdle,

Mr.

Mr. Rooke then proceeds to describe a barrow which he opened, and in which he found another of these stone chests, and a very large one. In the latter was 'a skeleton of a man, which measured *seven feet* from the head to the *angle-bone*; the feet were decayed and rotted off.' If Mr. Rooke was accurate in his measurements, and we believe him from his general habits to be so; the size of this skeleton is very extraordinary. Yet of what age was it? The weapons found with it shew that very evidently in general. 'On the left side near the shoulder, was a *broad sword* near five feet in length; the guard was *elegantly ornamented with inlaid silver flowers*.' The broad-sword marks the Briton, and the inlaying proves him to have been a Roman Briton. 'On the right side lay a *dirk* or dagger, one foot six inches and a quarter in length; the handle appeared to have been *studded with silver*.' These accompaniments indicate just the same, as the former. 'Near the dagger was found part of a gold *fibula* or *buckle*, and an ornament for the end of a belt, a piece of which adhered to it when first taken up; this Mr. Rigg proved to be gold, by trying it with aqua fortis.' This ornament for a belt, and this *fibula* or brooch, not buckle, confirm our conjectures upon the metal of the preceding monuments. 'Several pieces of a shield were picked up— There were also, part of a battle-axe, —a bit *shaped like a modern snaffle*,' and 'part of a spur' with a single point to it. All shew the person here buried, to have been a king of the Britons in Cumberland under the Romans, when all the elegancies of Rome were introduced into our island, and gold was worked up into a variety of ornaments for the persons of sovereigns in it. The stones of the chest, however, were 'unhewn;' and 'on these stones are various emblematical figures in *rude sculpture*, though some of the circles are exactly formed, and the rims and crosses within them are cut in relief.' The *crosses* shew the whole to have been posterior to the introduction of Christianity; not, as Mr. Rooke very ignorantly speaks, 'that is, soon after Augustine the monk arrived in Britain, which was A. D. 596;' but in that period of Roman refinement, when (as Tertullian informs us, about A. D. 200) many even of the Caledonians had received Christianity, 'Britannorum inaccessa Romanis loca—Christo—subdita *; and when no less than three bishops of Britain subscribed the decrees of the council of Arles, in A. D. 314†. We notice this egregious mistake in Mr. Rooke more circumstantially, in order to put him, the president, the director, and all the council, upon their guard against such *escapes* of ignorance again.

* Rigalt, 189,

† Sirmondus, 1. 9.

X. *Description of certain Pits in Derbyshire.* By Hayman Rooke, Esq.

To this description we can say nothing, for it is nothing in itself. Mr. Rooke, with an unlearned antiquary's 'eye, in a 'fine frenzy rolling,' fancies them to be a *British street of caverns*. He might as well have supposed them, the tail of a comet.

XI. *A Roman Altar inscribed to Belatucader, illustrated by Mr. Gough.*

In enumerating the authors who have stated *Belatucader* to be Mars, Mr. Gough forgets Mr. Whitaker, in his History of Manchester, Vol. I. quarto, additions at the end, p. 111.

XII. *Observations on the Machine called the Lewis.* By Francis Gibbon, Esq. F. A. S.

In the church of Whitby Abbey, and in some upper arches now thrown down by a storm, 'the key-stones of those upper arches are of large dimensions, measuring near a ton and an half each. On examination as they lay on the ground, I was surprised to see in the crown of each a cavity, in many respects similar to those cut into large blocks of stone, for the purpose of raising them by a machine commonly called a *Lewis*. This machine—is supposed by several intelligent engineers, to have been the invention of an ingenious French mechanic, employed in the magnificent public works of Louis XIV. and had its name given in compliment to that monarch. The principal view of the writer of the foregoing remarks, is to induce an abler hand to a closer investigation, tending to prove, that this highly useful machine called a *Lewis*, is not a modern French invention, but rather an improvement of an ancient one; and that our ancestors were not so ignorant in mechanics, as is generally imagined.' We can gratify Mr. Gibbon fully, we believe. We can shew the *Lewis* to be 'an ancient' instrument. That famous building near Falkirk in Scotland, which has been so shamefully destroyed in our own days, and was popularly called *Arthur's Oon*, a monument undoubtedly of Roman workmanship; 'is composed,' says Dr. Stukeley, describing it before it was destroyed, 'of hewn freestone, each generally about four feet long, a foot thick, and one foot ten inches broad. In the middle of every one is a hole narrow at the top, but broader as deeper, made for the iron of THE LEWIS, by which they were drawn up and let down in their several places with ropes and pulleys. This gave occasion

‘ to Camden’s mistake, who thought they were fastened in the
‘ work by mortaise and tenon wrought in the stone, like the
‘ great stones on Salisbury plain; not considering, that in this
‘ building the cavities are in *the upper face of the lower stone*,
‘ and that which *lies upon it has no correspondent protuberance*.—I
‘ cannot be positive, whether these holes, at least *some* of them,
‘ and *towards the upper courses*, might not *likewise* be made for
‘ letting in *cramps of metal**.’ Mr. Gordon afterwards sur-
veyed this building, but could see ‘ no appearance of such *cramps*
‘ *of metal*, as Dr. Stukeley mentioned †.’ Mr. Horsley sur-
veyed it after both, and found it ‘ without any *cramps of metal*
‘ or cement that now appear ‡.’ Thus objecting to his idea of
cramps, they confirm his account of *Lewis* holes; and shew the
instrument itself to be as old as the Romans, introduced by
them into this island, and used by them in one of their erections
here. However therefore ‘ our’ British ‘ ancestors were’ or
were ‘ not so ignorant in mechanics, as is generally imagined;’
yet our *Roman* ancestors were certainly acquainted with all that
the Romans knew in mechanics, and, among other points, with
the use of the *Lewis* or *Lewice* §.

XIII. *Description of the Church of Quenington in the County of Gloucester.* By Samuel Lysons, Esq. F. A. S.

XIV. *Account of Roman Antiquities discovered in the County of Gloucester.* By Samuel Lysons, Esq. F. A. S.

This article is accompanied with five plates. But the only
relick remarkable is, ‘ a *statera* or Roman steel-yard of brass,
‘ found at Kingsholm in 1788. It is, I believe, the first which
‘ has been discovered in this kingdom; and is very well pre-
‘ served, no part of it being lost, except the hook or chain by
‘ which the weight was suspended. One side of the beam is
‘ divided into six parts, each of which is sub-divided into
‘ twelve; the only number marked on this side is v, the other
‘ side has the numbers v, x, xv, xx, inscribed on it. —All the
‘ Roman steel-yards, which I have had an opportunity of ex-
‘ amining, are graduated in the same manner; making the
‘ highest number on one side, the lowest on the other; and
‘ proceeding, upwards by fives, either of pounds or ounces.

* Account of a Roman temple, and other antiquities, near Gra-
ham’s Dyke in Scotland, 1720, p. 13.

† Itin. Septen. 25.

‡ Brit. Rom. 174.

§ Perhaps only *Levatio* in Latin, pronounced *Leuatio*, *Lewice*, and
signifying merely the *lifter*. So *pont levis* in French is a draw-
bridge,

284 *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity.*

‘ The fine specimen preserved in the British Museum, which
‘ was found at Herculaneum, is graduated on one side of the
‘ beam for five pounds, and on the other proceeds from five to
‘ twenty five.’

XV. *An Account of some Roman Antiquities in Cumberland hitherto un-noticed.* By Hayman Rooke, Esq. F. A. S.

What we have to observe upon this account is, that the numerical references to the plates are very unfaithfully printed. In p. 140, ‘ Figure 8’ should be Figure 2; in p. 141, ‘ Fig. 10’ and ‘ 11’ should be 4 and 5; in p. 138, ‘ Plate V,’ and in p. 142 ‘ Plate XVII,’ should be Plate XV. in the former, and wholly omitted or Plate XV. again in the latter; and in p. 138 again, ‘ Plate IV.’ should be Plate XIV. These faults are too gross to be slightly pardoned in a society like the Antiquarian; and throw a great discredit upon Mr. Gough, who, as director, should officially (we presume) superintend the printing.

XVI. *Observations on the late Continuance of the Use of Torture in Great-Britain.* By George Chalmers, Esq. F. R. and F. SS.

Mr. Chalmers here shews, with equal good sense and learning, that torture was used in England to the reign of Charles the 1st, and in Scotland as late as 1708.

XVII. *Observations on Vitrified Fortifications in Galloway.* By Robert Riddell, Esq. F. A. S.

XVIII. *A Mosaic Casement in the Prior’s Chapel at Ely.* By Richard Gough, Director.

XIX. *On the Hunting of the ancient Inhabitants of our Island, Britons and Saxons.* By the Rev. Samuel Pegge, F. A. S.

Mr. Pegge always crams his essays with reading, and starves them in thinking. He particularly does so here.

XXI. [it should be XX.] *Description of a Saxon Arch, with an Inscription, in Dinton Church, Buckinghamshire.* By John Claxton, Esq. F. A. S.

What is rather singular, this article performs more than it promises, as nearly one half is employed in describing a glass vessel, some spear-heads, and a road called Port-Lane, in the neighbourhood.

XXII. [XXI.] *Observations on a Roman Horologium, found in Italy.* By Richard Gough, Director.

Learned, judicious, and curious!

XXIII.

XXIII. [XXII.] *Observations on an ancient Font at Burnham Deepdale, in Norfolk. By the Rev. Samuel Pegge, F. A. S.*

XXIV. [XXIII.] *Description of the Old Font in the Church of East Meon, Hampshire, 1789; with some Observations on Fonts. By Richard Gough, Director.*

This is a long dissertation of 27 pages upon fonts, very comprehensive, very learned, and very dull. Mr. Gough, however, we should observe in general, seems to us to take a larger compass in his erudition, and to season it more with *thought*, than any other member of the Society. We could even collect one or two passages from this dissertation, that would give pleasure to our readers. But the nature of our undertaking checks our hand, and prevents us.

*Cynthia aurem
Vellit, et admonuit.*

XXV. [XXIV.] *Three Letters from Mr. Samuel Carte to Dr. Ducarel, and one to Sir Thomas Cave, Bart. concerning Fonts.*

Too much in the laxity of epistolary writing, and too much with a reference to notices merely in the memory, to be very satisfactory in themselves!

[*To be continued.*]

Art. IX. *A Commentary illustrating the Poetic of Aristotle, by Examples taken chiefly from the modern Poets. To which is prefixed, a new and corrected Edition of the Translation of the Poetic. By Henry James Pye, Esq. pp. 564. 4to. 1l. 5s. Stockdale. London, 1792.*

ON fitting down to review this performance, though from the specimens already given us by Mr. Pye of his acquaintance with this treatise of the Stagirite we expected erudition and just criticism, we had little idea of finding considerable entertainment. In this, however, we were agreeably deceived; for although the work is not deficient in accurate examination of the sense of the original, it abounds with variety of observations on *dramatic writings* in general, and on the modern theatre, and those who have formed it, either as *poets* or *players*; and the author's observations are illustrated by lively criticism and interesting anecdote.

Indeed, Mr. Pye in his preface prepares us for this. 'I do not,' he says, 'consider this as a learned work, but as an attempt

‘ attempt to render the precepts of Aristotle clear to the English as well as the classical reader, and to enable those who are conversant only with the poets of our own country, to judge how far the rules of the Stagirite, which have been so often quoted and so much misrepresented, are really consonant with truth and nature. I have seldom gone into disquisition on difficult and disputed passages in the commentary, except when they are connected with general criticism, referring those to the notes on the translation. Whenever I have done otherwise, which is in a very few instances, it has been only when the note has been too long to be inserted at the foot of the page with any convenience to the reader.

‘ On the same principle I have made it a point to introduce no quotation from the ancient writers unaccompanied by an English translation; neither have I confined this precaution to the learned languages, since a knowledge of French and Italian, though at present very general, is not universal.’

We apprehend that Mr. Pye's remarks would have been more popular had they been submitted to the public under a less formidable name than that of a commentary on Aristotle. Such a title has so erudite an appearance as to terrify the generality of readers, who would have been readily induced to peruse a work professing to treat of the principles of poetry in general, more especially of the drama, and particularly of the modern drama, which are really the subjects treated of in the work before us.

Upon this principle we shall chiefly select such passages to lay before our readers as relate to general criticism, rather than to the explanation of particular parts of the original.

Mr. Pye, though often an advocate for Aristotle, does not, as is often the case with translators and commentators, make it a matter of conscience never to differ from him. On the contrary, he professes, in opposition to one of his master's canons, to prefer that mode of tragedy which concludes happily for the principal characters. He says,

‘ Why it should be the duty of a poet not to gratify the feelings of his audience, or why it should be a weakness in the audience to wish to see virtue rewarded and vice punished in the catastrophe, provided the passions of pity and terror have been strongly excited during the course of the drama, is I confess totally beyond my comprehension. If the principal person of the piece, on our interest for whom the general interest of the drama must depend, is to be shewn as falling from happiness to misery, through some great frailty, short of any species of guilt that shall sink him in our esteem, and is to be represented happy till the catastrophe of the piece, in the catastrophe only will the tragic impression be made. Or if the distress begin with the drama, and gradually increase till the fatal catastrophe, the peripetia

peripetia or sudden revolution of fortune will be wanting. It is impossible, however, to reduce to rules that which can be only tried by the criterion of our feelings; and from the passage before us it is obvious that the feelings of the Athenians were in opposition to the opinion of the Stagirite; and from a former part of the chapter it is equally clear that Euripides had been censured by his countrymen for forming his tragedies on the plan afterwards approved by Aristotle, though many of his tragedies, especially his *Alcestes*, his *Iphigenia in Tauris*, and his *Ion*, besides the *Cresphontes*, which will be particularly noticed in a note on the next chapter, are written in the popular form. Whatever might be Aristotle's motive for opposing the general taste of Athens in this particular, it still less applies to the modern drama. However elegant the taste of the ancients may have been, it is I think sufficiently obvious from all the classical writers that they were not so much alive to the feelings of sensibility as the moderns. We find few of those nice touches which mark the delicacy of the sensations, and which interest more than the strongest pictures of distress. The only striking instances I recollect of this kind, are the account of the behaviour and words of *Alcestes*, when she supposes herself dying, in Euripides; and the elegant compliment of the wife of *Tigranes* to her husband, and the pathetic tale of *Abradatas* and *Panthea* in *Xenophon's Cyropædia*.

* To argue from my own feelings, that arrangement of dramatic fable is at the same time the most affecting, and the most pleasing, in which those characters in whose welfare we are strongly interested, after experiencing the greatest distress, and while their utter ruin or death seems inevitable, are at once relieved by a sudden revolution of fortune quite unexpected, and yet not improbable; and the pleasure received from this will be greatly increased if the distress of the fable arises from tyranny and oppression, the author of which is involved in ruin by the peripetia. Such an arrangement will both excite pity and terror, and the catastrophe will be still agreeable to our feelings. This form is exemplified in the *Wife for a Month* of Beaumont and Fletcher, the *Marriage A-la-Mode* of Dryden, the *Grecian Daughter*, and, above all, in the fourth act of the *Merchant of Venice*. At the moment Shylock is preparing to execute his bloody purpose, the interposition of Portia,

* 'Tarry a little—there is something else,'

and the terror and disappointment of the Jew, has been already mentioned as affording the most striking theatrical situation that can be conceived. Perhaps the subsequent effect is something hurt by the raillery of Gratiano, the force of which should be kept down as much as possible in the performance, instead of being highly exaggerated, as it usually is. We have seen, indeed, the character of Portia given to a comic actress, and the gravest and most spirited parts of this scene made the vehicles of mimicry. In this Mrs. Clive was followed by Miss Macklin and others. Miss Young, now Mrs. Pope, had the honour of restoring Portia to her proper dignity. The fate of Sir Giles

Giles Overreach in Massinger's *New Way to Pay Old Debts*, would be a masterpiece of this sort were it not for the circumstance of his daughter being a party in the scheme to betray him, and the lord degrading his character as a nobleman, and still more as a soldier, by taking a principal part in the deception.

Though the *peripetia*, or sudden revolution of fortune, when arising even from accident, is allowable in the tragedy with a happy catastrophe, as in the *Wife for a Month* of Beaumont and Fletcher, yet I think in the tragedy of the other form the unhappy catastrophe should be a necessary or probable consequence of the circumstances of the fable. Undeserved misery, purely accidental, will always displease in the representation. Our sense of moral fitness is hurt by it; we are apt to say such things ought not to be. When such things happen in real life, our first sentiments take that turn, and we can only reconcile them with our notions of a just and merciful Providence, by looking beyond this life; but we are not likely to make reflections of that kind at the theatre; the dramatic illusion is momentary; the instant we reason about it it vanishes. The distress in *Romeo and Juliet* arises only from the Friar's coming a few minutes too late to the monument; and in Garrick's alteration, by Romeo's drinking the poison a few minutes too soon. The catastrophe of *King Lear* and of *Douglas* are both derived from accident. Tate has altered the first by making the messenger arrive only an instant sooner in the prison; in the original he comes time enough to save the king. The other may be altered, and I believe has been on a private theatre, by making Douglas turn a moment sooner on Glenalvon. Tragedies of this sort do not require the great art and judgment mentioned by Dryden to change the catastrophe, but it can very seldom be done when the catastrophe arises inevitably from the incidents; as in the *Œdipus* of Sophocles, and in *Coriolanus*, *Othello*, *Timon of Athens*, *Venice Preserved*, and the *Fair Penitent*.*

The following short sketch of the progress of the Greek drama is curious; and the play bill of the first night of Garrick's appearance will not be unacceptable to the dramatic amateur:

* Tragedy owed its birth to a kind of ode in honour of Bacchus, which was performed at the festival of that deity by rival poets, and the prize given to the successful candidate was a goat, from whence it received its name*. It occurred first to Thespis, one of these contending bards, to enliven the dulness of his periodic song by some

* *Τραγῳδία*, literally means the song of the goat.

* So Horace,

‘Carminē qui tragico vilem certavit ob hircum.’

ART. POET. 220.

‘He who the prize, a filthy goat, to gain,
At first contended in the tragic strain.’

COLMAN.

fable or fable to be recited between the intervals by one of the persons employed to sing in the ode. To this person Æschylus added a second actor, as Sophocles after did a third, forming a dramatic dialogue in which the original reciter of the fable, taken from the musical performers of the ode, had only a subordinate part. For a considerable time, however, the musical part continued to be considered as the chief; and the dramatic part as a kind of deviation from the regular form of tragedy*, which was sanctioned by religion, and supported and regulated by the magistrates, and from that circumstance received the appellation of epifode, which it ever afterwards retained. From this it is obvious, that the chorus was not the choice of the poet, but a necessary appendage to the theatre, which neither law nor custom would permit him to dispense with.

* This particular circumstance of the Greek tragedy, which occasioned them to smuggle, as it were, the dramatic fable on the public between the pauses of a musical composition, cannot fail of reminding us of the mode adopted by the provincial theatres to avoid the rigor of the law before the late act in their favour, by receiving money for a concert of music, and announcing a play to be acted gratis during the intervals †.

The

* * From this custom of deviating from the original design of praising Bacchus in these odes, arose the Greek proverb, *Οὐδὲν ἀπὸ Διονυσίου*. 'It has nothing to do with Bacchus,' which was applied generally to any thing introduced foreign to the subject in question.

† * By such a subterfuge was the illustrious Garrick first ushered to the public notice. The curious reader will not be displeased to see a copy of the bill that announced him. 'Goodman's Fields, October 19, 1741. At the late theatre in Goodman's Fields, this day will be performed, a concert of vocal and instrumental music, divided into two parts. Tickets at three, two, and one shilling. Places for the boxes to be taken at the Fleece Tavern, near the theatre. N.B. Between the two parts of the concert will be presented an historical play, called The Life and Death of King Richard the Third: containing the distresses of King Henry VI. the artful acquisition of the crown by King Richard, the murder of young King Edward the Fifth and his brother in the Tower; the landing of the Earl of Richmond, and the death of King Richard, in the memorable battle of Bosworth Field; being the last that was fought between the houses of York and Lancaster; with many other true historical passages. The part of King Richard, by A GENTLEMAN (WHO NEVER APPEARED ON ANY STAGE). King Henry, by Mr. Giffard; Richmond, by Mr. Marshall; Prince Edward, by Miss Hippisley; Duke of York, Miss Naylor; Duke of Buckingham, Mr. Peterson; Duke of Norfolk, Mr. Blakes; Lord Stanley, Mr. Pagett; Oxford, Mr. Vaughan; Tressel, Mr. William Giffard; Catesby, Mr. Marr; Ratcliff, Mr. Crofts; Blunt, Mr. Naylor; Tyrrel, Mr. Puttenham; Lord Mayor, Mr. Dunstall; the Queen, Mrs. Steele; Dutchess of York, Mrs. Gates; and the part of Lady Anne, by Mrs. Giffard.

The observations on the superior excellence of Shakspeare are so consonant with our own feelings, that we shall not apologise for laying them before our readers :

‘ It is something curious to trace the progression of the same attending this father of our drama. In his own time he appears to have been a universal favourite. Indeed he could not have been otherwise. His faults were all committed to comply with the taste of the age when he wrote ; and his beauties are such as must delight every age, and every taste for whom the beauties of truth and nature, unadorned by meretricious ornament, have charms. Both his merits and defects, therefore, were popular, though probably the last most. He did not, however, escape the envy of his rivals. Beaumont and Fletcher, whose excellencies are so far inferior, and whose farcical irregularities are so much more glaring (for there is no incident in Shakspeare so absurd as the arming * Demetrius Poliorcetes with a pistol), and whose indecencies are so disgusting, have more than once levelled a satiric blow at his fame. And Jonson, the pedantic Jonson, has sometimes censured him obliquely, and sometimes praised him superciliously, not as a writer by any means equal to himself, or likely to become his rival in dramatic fame ; but in the way a Cramer, or a Haydn, might be supposed to speak of a wonderful musical rustic, who, without musical education, was able to bring some wild sounds out of a violin.

‘ Something in the same manner is he spoken of by Milton. But there is a heavier charge against him in regard to Shakspeare. In his Eiconoclastes there is a passage

———— ‘ That sullies even his brightest lays,
And blasts the vernal bloom of half his bays.’

Like all other censure of the same kind, it misses the intended mark, and recoils on the author ; and we are not inclined to think the worse of the unfortunate and misguided Charles, because we are told that Mr. William Shakspeare was the closet companion of his solitudes.

‘ As the age improved in false refinement, and the opinion of the French critics prevailed, Shakspeare became more out of fashion with those who affected polite literature, and to be admirers of the ancients, till Rhymers, and the superficial and pedantic Shaftsbury, at last boldly slept forth and condemned him and his works to oblivion.

With entertainments of dancing, by Mons. Fromet, Madam Duval, and the two Masters and Miss Granier. To which will be added, a Ballad Opera of one act, called *The Virgin Unmasked*. The part of Lucy by Miss Hippisley. Both of which will be performed gratis by persons for their diversion. The concert will begin exactly at six o'clock.* This curiosity was communicated to me by Mr. William Giffard, one of the performers, now (1791) living at Southampton, a gentleman in character and manners truly respectable.*

* In the *Humorous Lieutenant*. See note 1, chap. xxiv.

Still,

Still, however, this doctrine was too refined for the people, it was caviar to the million, and Shakspeare was yet popular. The theatre, to please both the learned and the unlearned, got the plays of Shakspeare cut down as much as possible to the Grecian, or rather the modern fashion, and the stage was glutted with alterations of the plays of Shakspeare. At length English criticism grew too strong for French support, and ventured to walk alone. From that moment Shakspeare has boasted an increasing fame; and at this time, when the classics are more universally studied and really understood here, than in any other age or nation, when they are criticised without prejudice, and admired without pedantry, his works are as much idolised by his countrymen, as the poems of Homer were in the time of Aristotle.

* At present, however, the dramas of Shakspeare are more known in the closet than on the theatre. * Our dramatic taste seems to have sunk with Garrick. The musical drama has usurped the province both of Thalia and Melpomene; and we have lately seen one of his most entertaining plays exhibited on the stage as an opera.

* What would the haughty Jonson have thought of the prophet who had told him, that in an age of learning the works of Shakspeare would be in universal estimation, while his own were hardly talked of, and never read. I cannot think even that Milton could easily have imagined, that among a people well versed in polite and classic literature, the † stuff of Mr. William Shakspeare would be preferred to *Comus* and the *Samson Agonistes*.

* Perhaps this may be accounted for, in great measure, from our want of capital actors, I mean in tragedy; we have many excellent comedians. The power of representing the characters of Shakspeare fell with Garrick. From the same source we may derive the prevalence of the musical drama; we have singers, though we have not actors. But that we are not insensible to the excellence of acting when we meet with it, is obvious from the reception of Mrs. Siddons. Strong as the taste for the musical drama is at present, no singer that ever yet came from Italy could support herself on the stage, through successive seasons, as that unrivalled tragic actress has done, even with better assistance than those who have acted with her. She alone acted, for several winters, against the opera, and, what is still more, against the fashionable hours of the metropolis, and always to crowded houses. The degree in which she singly interested the public in the tragic scene, is a circumstance creditable to the English taste. But the dramas of Shakspeare cannot be supported by an actress, however excellent. Women's characters written for boys to act, can never afford sufficient exercise for the soul-subduing powers of Mrs. Siddons.

† Other stuff of this sort may be read throughout the tragedy (*Richard the Third*).—*ELCONOCLASTES*.

We cannot, however, subscribe to the following censure of Hammond's Love Elegies, p. 250: 'Hammond, in his Love Elegies, is a direct translator of Tibullus; his manners are all Roman. He abuses his mistresses for their venality, and talks of making a campaign, not, as his nobler editor suggests, to forget Neæra, but to accumulate money to satisfy her avarice.'

'And I through war must seek detested gold,
Not for myself, but for my venal fair.'

ELEGY II.

'I believe a campaign has seldom been the road to wealth, except to the general and the commissary.' This is not certainly one of Mr. Pye's happiest passages; for surely there is genuine passion in many passages of those delightful elegies. Hammond, it is true, has often translated Tibullus; but even then he has frequently improved on his original, while many beauties are all his own. To produce one example:

'Let others buy the cold unloving maid,
In forc'd embraces act the tyrant's part,
While I their selfish luxury upbraid,
And scorn the person where I doubt the heart.'

We must also think that Mr. Pye steps out of his way when he gives us his opinion something at large concerning Greek accents; see p. 395. And perhaps the learned reader may be inclined to think him rather paradoxical in some of his positions on that subject.

The following remark, however foreign it may seem to the general subject of a Commentary on Aristotle's Poetic, is too curious, especially at the present time, to be omitted:

'The insolent tranquillity with which an audience will receive the highest strains of adulation under the specious appellation of THE PUBLIC, is no bad specimen of the respect a democratic assembly has

* * Left I should be thought, in this sentence, to be libelling the House of Commons, I beg leave to observe, that neither that assembly, nor any representative body whatever, can be called democratical. All representatives are, to use the words of Colonel Mitford, 'persons elected by the people to legislative authority, for merit real or supposed.' See HISTORY OF GREECE, Chap. V. Sect. i. Our House of Commons has besides distinction of rank, which evidently must arise from the qualification of property required. To quote the words of our critic where he is defining the different forms of government, *ἔπον ἡ πολιτεία εἶναι εἰς τὸ πλούτον, καὶ ἀρετὴν, καὶ δῆμον, οἷον ἐν Κερκυραῖς, αὕτη ἀριστοκρατικὴ ἐστίν.* ARISTOT. POLIT. L. iv. C. viii. * When the form

has for the rights and equality of mankind. I have blushed for my countrymen when I have seen them in a body receive almost adoration from a lovely and accomplished actress which any individual of them would have been proud to offer.

'I am sorry to add, that this disgraceful practice is not confined to the musical drama. To the best of my recollection, it was first revived in a regular and excellent comedy, *The Clandestine Marriage*. The tragic muse has, I believe, hitherto kept herself clear of this degradation.'

We shall conclude our extracts with the following examination of the connexion between *beauty* and *utility*:

'Voltaire, who is never so happy as when he can with any plausibility of argument oppose any opinion that is generally received by the literary world, and especially if it has the sanction of antiquity, has chosen to attack the position laid down here by Aristotle, that the attaining a proposed end effectually, is any source of beauty or excellence.

'He says, 'I was present one day with a philosopher at the performance of a tragedy. 'How fine this is!' said he. I replied, 'What strikes you as being so fine?' He answered, 'The author has attained his end.' The next day he took physic, which did him good, 'Well,' said I, 'it has attained its end. What a beautiful dose of physic!' He found from this that we could not call a dose of physic beautiful, and that to give the name of beautiful to a thing, it is necessary that it should excite admiration and pleasure. He agreed that the tragedy had inspired him with both those sensations, and that in this consisted τὸ καλόν, *THE BEAUTIFUL*.

'We took a voyage to England. We there saw the same piece performed, perfectly translated. It set all the spectators a yawning. 'O ho,' said he, 'I see the τὸ καλόν is not the same for the English as for the French.' After many reflections he concluded, that *THE BEAUTIFUL* is sometimes very relative, as what is decent at Japan may be indecent at Rome, and what is fashionable at Paris may be unfashionable at Pekin. And he saved himself the trouble of writing a long treatise on *THE BEAUTIFUL*.—*Questions sur l'Encyclopédie*, Art. *Beau*.'

'I shall oppose to this an opinion from the writings of a man, which perhaps may have as much weight with some of my readers as those of the philosopher of Ferney, though they may not be in general quite so popular at present. Cicero, in his third book de Oratore, says, 'In most things it is wonderfully contrived by nature,

form of the commonwealth looks up to riches, to virtue, and to the opinion of the people, as in Carthage, it is aristocratical.' I wish to know how the qualifications of a member of parliament could be more exactly expressed, a certain quantity of property, merit real or supposed, and popularity.'

that those objects which are of the greatest utility, should possess also, not only the greatest dignity, but often also the greatest beauty and elegance.' And again, speaking of art, 'What are so necessary in navigation as the sides of the vessel, the keel, the prow, the stern, the yards, the sails, the masts, &c.? And yet all these have so much beauty and elegance in their form, that they seem as much invented for pleasure as for utility.'

'To leave authority let us consult our own observation. What is it that pleases us in the Farnese Hercules, or the Apollo Belvidere, but the appearance of strength in the one, and dignity of expression with symmetry of form indicating activity in the other? The same may be applied to animals. When we admire the hunter, the charger, and the racehorse, the greyhound, and the mastiff, do we not consider their fitness to excel in the several exercises to which they are appropriated, as the principal source of their beauty? When we speak of a fine regiment, do we consider the rapidity yet regularity of its movement, the steadiness of its position, the closeness of the fire, and the exactness of the aim, as beautiful only in themselves, or do we not take into our ideas at the same time their use, and consider them as carrying destruction and terror into the ranks of the enemies of their country?

'Perhaps this is no where more evident than in the judgment we pass on female beauty. It has been already slightly alluded to. It is a delicate subject to investigate; and I shall rather choose to rest my argument again in great measure on authority, than entirely hazard my own opinion.

'The elegant author of the *Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful* has partly adopted the same notion with Voltaire. He says, 'our notion of fitness has nothing to do with beauty.' But I think, on examining what he says of female beauty, it will be found that fitness has more connexion with our conceptions of it, even on Mr. Burke's own principles, than he chooses to allow. 'If beauty (he says) in our own species was annexed to use, men would be much more lovely than women; and strength and agility would be considered as the only beauties.'—*Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful*, Part III. Sect. IV. I do not think the author has exactly considered the different lights in which we see male and female beauty; if he had, perhaps he would not have been so decided in this opinion. I conceive a young officer sees his company and his mistress exactly as to beauty according to their fitness, as far as he is concerned with it. Strength, activity, and height, are the chief beauties that he admires in the men whom he is to lead on to danger, and on whose exertions he must depend for safety, honour, and victory: delicacy, softness in a word, beauty, as applied by way of eminence to perfection in the female form, in the woman who is the object of that passion which is stronger and dearer than safety, honour, or victory.

'Mr. Burke proceeds. "I appeal to the first and most natural feelings of mankind, whether, on beholding a beautiful eye, or a well-fashioned mouth, or a well-turned leg, any ideas of their being well fitted for seeing, eating, or running, ever present themselves." Cer-

tainly no. But if I have not sufficiently explained myself in the observation immediately preceding this quotation, Dryden shall do it for me. Celadon, in the Maiden Queen, after kissing a lady, says, 'Ay, marry! this was the original use of lips; talking, eating, and drinking, came in by the bye.'

'Mr. Burke says again, Part III. Sect. XV. "Observe that part of a beautiful woman where perhaps she is most beautiful, about her neck and breasts: the smoothness, the softness, the easy and insensible swell, the variety of the surface, which is never for the smallest space the same, the deceitful maze through which the unsteady eye slides giddily, without knowing where to fix, or whither it is carried!'

'This is warm painting, and speaks to the feelings, I believe, both of reader and writer. But Ovid, I think, has clearly shewn its end by this verse,

'Forma papillarum quam fuit apta premi.'

If the beauty of this enchanting object depended on the circumstances of its form only, as described in the glowing colours of the writer, independent of any other sensation, it would in every case be equally pleasing. But I conceive it will be sufficiently obvious to every man who will ask himself the question, that this form, lovely and enchanting as it is where Nature has placed it, would have no such extraordinary and self-evident beauty as the critic has ascribed to it, in any other situation.

'The subject is resumed in Part III. Sect. XVI. "The beauty of women is considerably owing to their weakness and delicacy, and is ever enhanced by their timidity, a quality of mind analogous to it. I would not here be understood, that weakness betraying very bad health has any share in beauty; but the ill effect of this is not because it is weakness, but because the ill state of health which produces such weakness alters the other conditions of beauty. The parts in such a state collapse, the bright colour, the lumen purpureum juventutis, is gone; and the fine variation is lost in wrinkles, sudden breaks, and right lines.'

'I think if Mr. Burke had not been led away by hypothesis he would not have ended his argument by that figure which is now called a truism. If ill health produces the consequences of old age, the effects will be the same on the beauty of a female form. But I contend, that without this effect, languor produced by sickness will destroy female beauty. Delicacy, softness, effeminacy, are great and essential beauties in a woman, both in her form and manners; even languor has its enchantments: but the instant we know, or fancy even, that these proceed from ill health, the charm is broken; the person may be an object of our pity, our esteem, or even our love, taken in its cooler sense, but ceases to be the object of our passion. Shenstone justly observes, 'Health is beauty, and the most perfect health the most perfect beauty. A florid look, to appear beautiful, must be the bloom of health, and not the glow of a fever.' Whence arises it, that the same appearance should be either beautiful or disgusting, according to the causes from which it arises? The answer,

T 4

I think,

I think, completely establishes, in this case at least, the position of Aristotle. For sickness must always be attended with circumstances very unfavourable to the ideas of a lover. The ladies are sometimes apt to mistake this in regard to themselves; but I believe it never escapes their observation with respect to our sex.

‘After all, there is something so problematical in this subject, and so many circumstances occur that militate against the hypothesis I have advanced, that I by no means hazard what I have said as a decided opinion. That all utility is not beauty, will be obvious from many circumstances. That sometimes even it is in direct opposition to it, is equally obvious. There is perhaps no prospect so displeasing as that of a newly-enclosed country, especially if enclosed by stone walls, which are particularly calculated to answer their purpose. Every man of taste will exclaim with the poet,

‘What joy the country’s native form to see,
From ploughs, and aught of human culture free.’

Enclosures have their beauties, but it is when the scene of cultivation is concealed by the luxuriant foliage of the irregular hedges, and the trees, whose shade injures the growth of the fences, but gives to the whole country an appearance of forest.’

Mr. Pye, in his preface, notices the friendly aid he received from Mr. Winstanley in several emendations and remarks; Mr. Jackson, of Exeter, looked over his observations on music; and Mr. Hodges examined those on painting.

On the whole, after a careful examination of this performance, we cannot but express our warm approbation. The author has blended learning with taste, and acute criticism with entertainment. The work is peculiarly adapted to those who are devoting themselves to the study of dramatic poetry; it is a SCHOOL for the young artist, and a CABINET for the amateur.

ART. X. *Philosophical Dissertations on the Greeks. Translated from the French of M. de Pauw, Private Reader to Frederic II. King of Prussia.* pp. 619. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. Faulder. London, 1793.

THERE is no period in the history of man so brilliant or so instructive as that of ancient Greece. Though the sun of learning and science first rose in Egypt, it was there obscured by perpetual fogs, till it passed into the horizon of Greece, where it shone with meridian lustre, and thence diffused a light as boundless as the universe, and as durable. The most splendid rays of modern genius are but emanations of that light; and we have no other standard to judge of whatever is great or good, but by its approximation to the bright models of Grecian excellence.

It

It cannot, therefore, be a matter of surprise, that every circumstance relating to a country thus eminently distinguished should have been collected with industrious care by the most admired writers of every age, and every nation. All were desirous of transplanting to their respective climes some of the olive and the laurel that flourished on the banks of the Ilissus. Among those who have been most successful in such researches, M. de Pauw, the author of the work before us, deserves our justest acknowledgments. We know not which to admire most, the novelty or the judgment he has displayed in the discussion of so trite, yet so interesting, a subject. He possesses, in a very uncommon degree, the happy talent of scattering flowers over the thorny paths of philosophy, and of enlivening the lessons of wisdom by sprightly fallies of wit, and the most curious anecdotes of ancient manners.

The plan of this valuable work is traced with great perspicuity by the author in a preliminary discourse. He informs us, that having before published some observations on the degraded state of the savage Americans, and afterwards on the Chinese and Egyptians, two nations condemned to perpetual mediocrity, he now proposed to complete his train of discussions relative to the natural history of man, by some investigations respecting the Greeks. He then points out how far we are indebted to this illustrious people, but says ‘it must not be imagined, that all the inhabitants of ancient Greece have, without distinction, an equal right to our gratitude, or an indiscriminate title to our praise. Not less than four nations existed among them who never laboured for posterity, and were seen passing, like fugitive shadows on the surface of the earth, without leaving the smallest monument of genius behind them.’

According to this judicious distinction, M. de Pauw gives a short sketch of the nations of Greece, as deserving of our contempt or applause:

‘The Lacedemonians,’ he observes, ‘in the first place, so far from ever contributing to the progress of science, or the perfection of any one art, conceived glory to consist solely in amassing spoils amidst devastation and carnage. Declared enemies to the repose of Greece, they counted peace in the number of public calamities, and only terminated one war to commence another; until, at length, they were consumed by the very flames they themselves had kindled.

‘Another nation, equally dangerous with the Lacedemonians, and not less ignorant, anciently inhabited Ætolia. The language of the Greeks was, indeed, spoken there; but the Ætolians had the manners of barbarians, and such atrocity of character, that they were compared to beasts of prey, masked in the human form. In some of their cantons the flesh of animals was eaten raw; and in all their expeditions they

they discovered the rapacity of robbers. Among their crimes, we know of more than fifty towns destroyed, and as many temples plundered, without excepting the famous oracle of Dodona, which neither a lawless banditti, nor the most profane among the Greeks, had ever before dared to violate. In a word, without laws, and destitute of respect, either human or divine, the Ætolians were at once terrible to others, on account of their ferocity; and destructive to themselves, from a spirit of sedition, and an instinct, as it were, for anarchy.

The Thessalians, likewise, never offered the smallest incense on the temple of genius, nor on the altar of the arts. The country they inhabited was fertile, and protected in such a manner by a chain of lofty mountains, that nothing would have been easier than to banish discord, and secure uninterrupted tranquillity. But those fine valleys, destined in appearance for the dwellings of peace, were the very centre of political confusion: they passed incessantly from oppression to independence, and from independence to oppression. No sooner were the great tyrants overthrown, than the smaller sprang out of their ashes; and, instead of one, they had a thousand masters, without the advantage of a single good law.

Nothing was more pernicious to the Thessalians than their pride and inconceivable presumption. Ridiculously infatuated with some romantic genealogies, they thought always of their nobility, and never of their ignorance. Agriculture was with them a disgraceful occupation, consigned to the vilest of their slaves; and the fine arts, in common with those purely mechanical, were considered capable of tarnishing the lustre of families, and even the glory of the nation. With such principles and maxims, their darkness became impenetrable to any ray of public or private duty. None would obey, and no one knew how to command; while every species of legislation vanished before their incorrigible turbulence and vanity. This corruption of manners and character will be displayed more amply in treating of the nobility of the Greeks in general; and then it will appear, that their pretended grandeur had its only source in a state of absolute slavery.

To these instances must be joined the inhabitants of Arcadia, who appeared utterly incapable of producing any thing of consequence. . . . They were, indeed, much superior to the Lacedæmonians and Ætolians in their moral qualities and innate goodness of heart; but an ungrateful soil, mountainous and little fit for cultivation, forced them to embrace a pastoral life, which in no corner of the world has ever been favourable to civilisation or the arts, because it degenerates into a state of wandering and idleness, where the wants are few, and the desires easily gratified. Yet the mind of man, born the enemy of labour and constraint, becomes so much attached to this peaceful manner of living in open air, that it is without comparison more difficult to fix a race of shepherds than a nation accustomed to the chase. . . .

If all these nations, entirely lost to the sciences and arts of Greece, are excepted, it will appear that the Athenians alone were charged

charged with that weight, which no other power could then sustain. Argos, Corinth, Sicyon, Rhodes, Ægina, and some other islands of the Archipelago, cultivated with great success those arts purely agreeable, such as sculpture and painting; but Athens had schools of philosophy, and alone knew how to preserve them. When erected in other places, they fell soon into ruin, like edifices without foundation; and the generation that saw them produced, witnessed likewise their decay. At Athens, on the contrary, a long succession of philosophers sat on the same throne, and in the shade of the same garden. There the sanctuary of wisdom was never shut, nor was the sacred fire suffered to perish; for the chief of each celebrated sect appointed an heir to his school, as a sovereign would dispose of a kingdom or an empire.

‘All these considerations,’ says M. de Pauw, ‘have naturally drawn our attention more particularly to the Athenians than to the other Greeks, who did not afford sufficient features to fill up the outlines of a great picture. It is frequently impossible to discover either the internal regulations of their towns, or the actual state of the country, the amount of their finances, or the strength of their population; while on the territory of Athens no geographical circumstance has escaped the attention of observers. The details handed down to us concerning this people, include every thing necessary to characterise a nation celebrated for many extraordinary virtues; and these we will endeavour to make known. . . . Our purpose does not lead us to collect Greek antiquities, which have afforded matter to so many compilers; but to compose a rational and connected work, where nothing marvellous can find place, and each circumstance must be critically discussed, previous to its being admitted into the order of historical facts.’

Give me, said a celebrated painter, *a good outline, and you may fill it up with mud.* But M. de Pauw has done a great deal more: he has not only traced a masterly outline, but he has filled it up with exquisite taste and judgment. Singularly happy in the choice of his subjects, he has disposed them with wonderful effect. The first presents to our view some of the most beautiful landscapes; he shews us the consequences of a predilection for rural life throughout the whole of Attica, ‘where the avrice of Nature was more than counterbalanced by the advances of unremitted industry.’ We are then led by the most agreeable paths to the gardens of the philosophers, where we find so many great men formed in the shade of tranquillity, and far from the importunate cries of the vulgar;—where we see an alley of olive-trees, or a thicket of myrtles, separating the dominions of system, and serving as boundaries in the empire of opinions. Thus, while our guide seems only to entertain us with charming prospects, he lays before us, in the most striking manner, the influence of air, climate, soil, and education, on the character and genius of the Athenians. Instead of traversing
rugged

rugged precipices, or digging into mountains of ruins, to discover the ancient position of some trifling town, he takes us to the summit of Hymettus, once the most picturesque spot in the world. Thence 'the eye could range over the greatest part of the continent of Greece, inhabited by a fortunate and free people. Thence discerning all the streets of Athens, the spectator could trace the sacred way by a row of statues, of temples, and mausoleums, to the very gates of Eleusis. Beyond the many islands scattered immediately along the western coast of Attica, appeared others so far distant that they could scarce be distinguished from the billows; while prodigious numbers of vessels were constantly steering outwards, or directing their course round this mount, towards the three principal marts of Greece.'

But we will not anticipate the pleasure which the reader must derive from M. de Pauw's admirable descriptions. All his scenery, however enchanting, is made subservient to some important philosophical or political truth. He corrects the errors of modern travellers, and the fables of ancient tradition, by the accuracy of his surveys; and even in passing by the little town, or rather the present sheep-fold, of Marathon, he shews us how some of the Athenian orators exaggerated the most glorious of their victories, until it became incredible and ridiculous.

M. de Pauw's remarks on the physical constitution of the Athenians; on the beauty of the young men; on the dress and manners of the women; on the corruption of instinct in the Greeks; on the causes of degeneracy in the Athenian families; and on the fatal effects of domestic servitude; are not more curious than convincing. A short extract from his observations on the intercourse of the sexes will sufficiently illustrate the justness of this criticism:

'To discover,' says he, 'the causes of what is commonly called depravity of instinct among the Greeks, it is sufficient to reflect on a caprice of nature peculiar to them, which, withholding favours from one sex, where they were absolutely requisite, lavished them on the other without necessity. . . . It is a circumstance equally remarkable and surprising, that while the territory of Athens abounded with men whose corporeal faculties discovered the highest degree of perfection, no age or situation ever produced women there who were celebrated for beauty.

'Negligence in dress, unsupported by any natural graces, would have weakened, if not totally destroyed, those charms, which were necessary to unite the sexes. With a view of correcting abuses of that nature, a singular magistracy was established at Athens, to superintend the dress of the women, and constrain them to appear decent. The rigour of this tribunal was extreme; it imposed the fine of a thousand drachmæ on those who neglected to adorn their hair, or discovered

discovered peggilence in their attire; and the names of such persons were afterwards exposed on tablets to public view. Thus the infamy attending the transgression exceeded even the enormity of the penalty; for women, whose names had appeared in this catalogue, were lost for ever in the opinion of the Greeks.

This severity, instead of being useful, produced an evil entirely unforeseen. To avoid such disgraceful censure, every species of ruinous luxury was introduced; and the women adopting the most extravagant modes, carried the use of paints in particular to an excess hitherto unequalled among civilised nations. It became, in fact, a perfect disguise, and confounded, in public places, the most profligate courtesan with the most respectable matron. The eyebrows and lashes were blackened by different processes; and the cheeks and lips coloured with the juice of a certain plant . . . which communicates a carnation paler than carmine. On all occasions of ceremony, a coat of white lead covered every face and breast without distinction, unless in time of mourning; and rules of exemption even then were not always respected.' . . .

M. de Pauw then takes notice of several absurd methods adopted in Greece to rectify, as they imagined, the shape of the women, but which effectually destroyed it, while the men issued from the hands of Nature adorned with every grace. To this source he traces the rise of an unnatural passion which disgraced the Greeks; and he also proves that they themselves were sensible of the cause of this depravity, which may, indeed, as he observes; 'be concluded from this single circumstance, 'that never in any country of the world did female perfections 'excite so much enthusiasm as in Greece. Whenever a beautiful woman appeared there, an event not common, her name 'was in every mouth, from the extremity of Peloponnesus to the 'confines of Macedonja. The fermentation spread like a contagious flame; husbands could no longer be restrained by the 'caresses of the most tender wives, nor sons by the threats of 'imperious mothers. The whole nation was prostrate at the 'feet of Laïs; and while Greece triumphed over the armies of 'Persia and the treachery of Sparta, it was totally subdued by a 'courtesan of Sicily.' . . .

After a very interesting view of the private lives and domestic manners of the Athenians, the author proceeds to examine their systems of public education, their exercises, their games, their theatres, their tribunals; the progress of the useful and the elegant arts; the origin of their nobility, and their distinctions of rank; the sources of their wealth, and the state of their commerce and finances; the principles of their civil and religious constitution; in short, he has not passed over any one point of importance, nor left out a single stroke which could render his portrait of the Athenians a complete likeness.

In

In the remaining part of this work the writer enters upon the true character of the Lacedemonians with equal sagacity and spirit. He shews how unjustly those people have been, for several ages, the object of admiration and enthusiasm with so many prejudiced writers; and, by the force of strong arguments, has made those fables and illusions vanish so completely, that they will hardly be again revived.

Though Athens and Sparta are the prominent figures in this grand picture of Greece, the other states are more or less brought forward, or thrown into the back ground, according to their relative degrees of importance. The genius of the painter, so far from being fettered by the rules of art, discovers the greatest ease in the strict observance of them, and heightens the effect of every object by the magic powers of perspective:

————— ‘ The fainter parts retire;
The fairer, eminent in light, advance;
And every image on its neighbour smiles.’

The translator has modestly concealed his name. While we admire the cause, we wish to lessen his diffidence; we hope to have farther opportunities of doing justice to his talents, which, if we may judge from the specimen given in his preface to the above work, qualify him no less for original writing than for correct and animated translation.

ART. XI. *The State of the Representation of England and Wales; delivered to the Society, The Friends of the People, associated for the Purpose of obtaining a parliamentary Reform, on Saturday, 9th February, 1793. pp. 38. 4to. 1s. Stuart, Frith-Street, London, 1793.*

IF we are to believe these *sei disans* friends of the people, the English constitution, in some even of its essential principles, is in a very deplorable state indeed. This pamphlet, they pretend to say, contains nothing but a brief detail of plain indubitable facts. Of what nature these are, the following examples will abundantly shew:

‘ Your committee conceive they cannot better conclude this part of their inquiry than by a short statement of the general results that arise from it; they therefore report that it appears,

‘ That the number of representatives assigned to the different counties is grossly disproportioned to their comparative extent, population, and trade.

‘ That a majority of what are called the representatives of the commons are returned by the 170th part of the male part of the subjects

jects of England paying taxes, even supposing those only to amount to two millions.

‘ That the partial distribution of the elective franchise, which subdivides this 170th part into 155 other parts, commits the choice of representatives to select bodies of men of such limited numbers, as renders them an easy prey to the artful, or a ready purchase to the wealthy.

‘ That the right of voting is regulated by no rational or uniform principle respecting either property or condition. That from the caprice with which it has been varied, and the obscurity in which it has become involved by time and contradictory decisions, it is a source of infinite confusion, litigation, and expence.

‘ That the manner in which elections are conducted is a disgrace to the name of free election; that it is inconvenient to the elector, and ruinous to the candidate; that it is a scourge to the honest and peaceable, and a harvest to the dissolute and corrupt.

‘ That the power given to returning officers, too often (except in counties) men of extreme ignorance, or known depravity, added to the delay of the House of Commons in attending to the petitions for redress, frequently deprives the electors of their true representative for years.

‘ That the present system of election laws, which professes to qualify a man for parliament who possesses three hundred pounds a year, is only calculated to insult the people with the shew of an independent choice, because by its operation it disables all, who have not incomes of at least as many thousands, from becoming candidates.

‘ Lastly, That the length of the duration of parliament, subjected to the will of the crown, tends to make the representative independent of the constituent; to render him submissive to the commands of those in power; and to disturb ‘ that happy union and good agreement between the king and people,’ which by our ancestors at the revolution was so constitutionally asserted to arise ‘ from frequent and new elections.’

This is not the whole of the labour of these industrious gentlemen; for they present us with a long list of boroughs, and some counties, that are under patronage; and they tell us the names of those noblemen and gentlemen who have the disposal of them, either by nomination or influence. To this list they prefix the following declaration:

‘ We will only add the most solemn assurance, that it is, to the best of our knowledge, a true and unexaggerated statement. If in any instance we have erred by attributing a patronage to any nobleman or gentleman of which he is not possessed, let it be considered whether, in correcting the mistake, you can do more than *erase one name for the purpose of inserting another*; which, as no party suggestions ought here to have weight, cannot make any substantial difference. The object of the committee is not to shew that this or that particular set of men have obtained the command of the representation, but that *the people have lost it.*’

The

The result of the whole is thus stated :

71 peers and the treasury return	-	-	167 members
91 commoners return	-	-	139
<hr/>			
12 peers and commoners with the treasury return			306
17 boroughs, not containing on an average, 150 voters, return	-	-	21

So that 2611 persons return to serve in parliament - 327

To these 327 add 28 who are returned by *compromises*, and it will appear in what manner such a number of the members of the House of Commons is elected as constitutes a majority of no less than 197 of the representatives of England and Wales.

If these things were absolutely true, they would shake the faith of many of the good folks of England as to the excellence and purity of the constitution. But we hope that some one of the numerous real friends of the people will be able, and will take the pains, to demonstrate that the statement in this pamphlet is erroneous, and will meritoriously rescue our glorious constitution, the precious result of the highest efforts of the collected wisdom of ages, and the envy and admiration of the world, from the scandalous aspersions here cast upon it.

ART. XII. CINNAMON TREE COMMUNICATION.

SEVERAL different accounts have been given of the first importation of the CINNAMON TREE into Bengal, but the following may be depended upon as an authentic statement of that matter.

At the commencement of last war, the Bengal government fitted out two armed ships; the Royal Charlotte and Résolution, which joined Admiral Vernon at Pondicherry. After the surrender of Pondicherry, his majesty's ship Seahorse, with the two armed ships, were ordered to cruise off Ceylon for some French ships said to be on that coast. The Royal Charlotte being by accident separated from her companions, and having sustained damage in her rudder, was obliged to put into Point de Gall. During her stay in that harbour, Lieutenant James Nathaniel Rind, then third lieutenant, became acquainted with a Dutch gentleman of considerable rank, who shewed him some cinnamon trees that grew near his house. Lieutenant Rind requested a plant; but the gentleman refused to oblige him in this particular, confessing it was more than his life was worth. He, however, informed Lieutenant Rind, that the tree grew all round the east side of the bay. From this information Lieutenant Rind went into

into the woods under pretence of shooting, and at different times collected a number of plants which he conveyed on board of ship, where he preserved them in boxes filled with earth. About a month afterwards the *Royal Charlotte*, having sailed from Point de Gall, fell in with a grab ship, commanded by Captain Durnford, bound from Bombay to Bengal. On board of this ship Lieutenant Rind embarked his plants, addressed to the care of John Ferguson, Esq. at Calcutta, who received them safe, and delivered them to Mr. Hastings, then governor-general.

At this moment there are two trees of from 18 or 20 feet in height in the garden at Allipore, formerly belonging to Mr. Hastings, but now in the possession of William Jackson, Esq. whence all the gardens round Calcutta have been supplied with plants.

The merit of importing this valuable tree into a British settlement evidently, therefore, belongs to Mr. Rind, now a lieutenant on the Bengal military establishment.

London, April 18, 1793.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For APRIL 1793.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 13. *New Moral Tales; consisting of the Tripod of Helen; the School for Friendship; There was no Help for it; and the Watermen of Besous. Translated from the French of Marmontel. Vol. III. pp. 233. 8vo. 3s. Bew. London, 1793.*

IN our review of the two former volumes of the *New Moral Tales*, we informed our readers that Marmontel had engaged to furnish a daily paper at Paris with a certain portion of entertaining narration. From that paper these tales have been selected, and a translation of them given to the public. Perhaps they are not equal to Marmontel's first productions of a similar nature—but they are by no means unworthy of him. The tree is not expected to present always to the eye a foliage luxuriant and green—the summer must pass away—the tree must fade ‘into the leaf, the yellow leaf.’—The mind, too, has its seasons—it has its spring, its summer, its autumn, and its winter, as well as ‘the varied year’—From this *third* volume of *Tales* we have received a considerable degree of amusement. The *Tripod of Helen* is a pretty conceit, very prettily told. The Tripod being found by a fisherman, is ordered by the Delphic Oracle to be offered

as a present to the wisest among the sages of Greece. It is accordingly carried to each, and each refuses it. By the advice of Bias, who declares the true sage to be no mortal but a god, it is at length sent back to the deity by whose command it was offered, and consecrated in the temple of Delphos, there to serve as a seat for the priests of Apollo.—The *School for Friendship* possesses a sufficient degree of interest, but not much novelty.—*There was no Help for it*, is not deficient in either of these requisites.—*The Watermen of Besons*, however, arrested our attention more than any of the former, and deserves most of our applause. This tale is scarce surpassed by any of Marmontel's former productions. It is not our intention to present our readers with any extracts from it, but to refer them to the tale itself.

ART. 14. *A short Address to the Public on the Practice of cashiering Military Officers without a Trial; and a Vindication of the Conduct and political Opinions of the Author: to which is prefixed his Correspondence with the Secretary at War.* By Hugh Lord Sempill. pp. 45. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. London, 1793.

The correspondence with Sir George Young tends to prove that whatever causes might induce his majesty to dismiss the noble author from his service, no reason was ever given to his Lordship. A letter from Colonel Grinfield goes to prove that his lordship's conduct as an officer had always been unexceptionable. The address to the public shews more honest warmth than prudence.

ART. 15. *The Rights of Man, as exhibited in a Letter read at the Philosophic Society in Newcastle, on the 8th of November, 1775; for printing of which the Society did the Author the Honour of expelling him. To which are added, the Queries sent by the Rev. J. Murray to the Society on the Occasion. Also a Song of Triumph for the People on their long-lost Rights.* Third Edition. pp. 24. 12mo. 3d. Printed for the Author, and sold by Weyland. London, 1793.

The modest proposal contained in this little threepenny pamphlet is no more than for the people to resume the lands, and, letting them out on leases, to pay all the necessary expences of government, poor laws, &c. by the rents arising from them. Mr. Murray's queries tend to prove that some thing of this kind was instituted by the Levitical laws.

ART. 16. *Observations on the Effects of the Coal Duty upon the remote and thinly-peopled Coasts of Britain.* By James Anderson, LL. D. F.R.S. F.A.S. &c. and Editor of the Bee. pp. 32. 8vo. 6d. Kay. London, 1793.

We have before experienced this intelligent author to be well informed on subjects of political economy; and his inquiries are constantly directed towards the improvement of his country. The observations with which he now presents the public tend to shew, that were the coal-duty above mentioned removed, the industry of the people would be excited, the prosperity of the nation promoted, and the revenue augmented to an astonishing degree. These are not the precarious

precarious suggestions of sanguine expectation, but are confirmed by instances within the author's knowledge of similar effects, resulting from the operation of the same principle.

ART. 17. *A general View of the actual Force and Resources of France in January 1793.* By William Playfair. pp. 51. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1793.

Mr. Playfair affirms, upon creditable authority, that there never was a time when France could send fewer men into the field, for any continuance, and supply them with necessaries, than at present; because, in all the towns and villages, they want guards against each other; because there is no order, no regularity, and no industry, among those at home, to supply those who are in the field. Instead of France's having 2,400,000 armed men, as has been said, ready to take the field, this author is confident that the number will be comparatively inconsiderable; and that those who engage in the public service will be both ill fed and ill clothed. From the present state of that distracted country, the justness of these conclusions can scarcely be questioned. The pamphlet contains many other observations of a similar tendency.

ART. 18. *The genuine Speech of the Right Hon. Charles James Fox, spoken at the Whig Club of England, Dec. 4, 1792. With a poetical Exposition of his political Principles.* pp. 15. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1792.

As the editor of this speech acknowledges that he has given it only from imperfect recollection, we cannot justly consider it as the genuine speech of Mr. Fox, though, from internal evidence, we should not doubt of its authenticity. The poetical exposition is a humorous attempt at burlesque.

ART. 19. *Simple Facts; or, The History of an Orphan.* By Mrs. Matthews. pp. 427. 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. sewed. Low. London, 1793.

We have not been tempted by a perusal of this work to recommend it to any of our readers. It is one of those works which ought to be

Below contempt, to praise unknown,
And neither worth a smile nor frown.

ART. 20. *The Fugitive of Folly; intended as a representative Sketch of the Progress of Error from Youth to Manhood, in a Mixture of modern Manners; with Hints for the Regulation of the Police, &c. &c.* By Thomas Thoughtless, junior, Esq. pp. 152. 8vo. 2s. Adams. London, 1793.

If there be not much to commend in the *Fugitive of Folly*, at least there is not much to blame. The fugitive means well, and often gives good advice. When the intention is evidently good, it would be acting the part of a misanthrope to inveigh severely against the execution.

ART. 21. *Gonzalva of Cordova; or, Grenada reconquered. Translated from the French of M. Florian.* pp. 730. 8vo. 3 vols. 9s. Johnson. London, 1793.

We cannot afford our readers a better idea of this work than by the following extract from the preface:

‘ I do not mean to write a particular history of the Moors, I only wish to record their principal revolutions, to trace a faithful model of the character and manners of a people, which I have attempted to describe in the progress of my work, and to enable the reader to discriminate, among my fictions, the truths which serve as their foundation. Such is, in my opinion, the certain, and perhaps the only means, of rendering a book of mere amusement less useless and less frivolous. The Spanish historians, which I have consulted with great care, have afforded me but little assistance. Anxious to place, in the front of their perplexed histories, the different princes of Asturia, Navarre, Arragon; and Castille, they advert not to the Moors; but when their wars with the Christians intermix the common interests of both nations: they seldom if ever speak of the government, the laws, and customs, of the enemies of their faith. The Arabian writers which they have translated, give but little more light; misled by fanaticism, and blinded by a ridiculous pride, they expatiate with complacency on the victories of their nation; they say nothing of their defeats, and pass over, without mention, whole dynasties. Some of our learned men have collected, in their valuable works, what these historians have recorded, with what they themselves have observed, I have drawn from these sources. I have studied the manners of the Moors in Spanish romances; in those of the ancient Castilians, in manuscripts; and memoirs sent me from Madrid. It was after this long and painful study that I have endeavoured to make known a people which resembles no other, and which has its vices, its virtues, its character peculiar to itself, and which, for a long period, knew how to combine the valour, generosity, and courtesy, of the knights of Europe, with the transports and furious passions which mark the orientals.

‘ To observe more order with respect to time, and more perspicuity with respect to facts, I have divided this summary history into four principal epochs. The first extends from the conquests of the Arabians to the establishment of the Omniades at Cordova. The second comprehends the reigns of the caliphs of the West. In the third I have collected the little which is known of the different smaller kingdoms, raised on the ruins of the caliphate of Cordova; and the fourth involves the history of the sovereigns of Grenada to the total expulsion of the Moors.’

M. Florian has connected amusement with instruction, and thus *omne tulit punctum.*

ART. 22. *Letter from Gerard Noel Edwards, Esq. M. P. to the Secretary of the New Town Society of the Friends of the People, in Answer to his Letter, inclosing, by Order of the Society, the Resolutions agreed upon at their Meeting, dated Edinburgh, 31st Dec. 1792.* pp. 13. 8vo. 6d. Dobrett. London, 1793.

Mr. Edwards's letter is, in some parts, sensible and argumentative. We can observe, however, a backwardness and a hesitation throughout the whole, as if the gentleman were afraid to avow his sentiments. We cannot dismiss the subject without quoting Mr. Edwards's opinion of the constitution:

'I have found it necessary, in framing my answer, to allude to the constitution; of which, although no perfect definition has ever been, or, as I believe, ever can be given, yet it is sufficiently understood to be referred to, and sufficiently excellent and approved to be pertinaciously defended; and I should fear, that whenever by any means it is so altered, as to be capable of perfect definition, at that moment the constitution will have suffered a change for the worse, and will be possessed of less efficient power to do good.'

An argument more reprehensible we scarce ever heard.

ART. 23. *Elementary Dialogues, for the Improvement of Youth.* By J. H. Campe. Translated by Mr. Seymour. Illustrated with Sixteen Copper-plates, 12mo. 3s. sewed. Hookham and Co. London, 1793.

We have always patronised every publication that tended to the improvement of youth. The present production, therefore, has a right to expect that patronage, and to demand it. These elementary dialogues are fourteen in number; they tend to explain to the capacities of children metaphysical and moral notions in a way perfectly new and easy. Mr. Campe seems to have been long employed in the education of youth, and we doubt not successfully,

ART. 24. *Liberty and Equality; treated in a short History addressed from a poor Man to his Equals.* pp. 39. 8vo. 6d. Hookham and Co. London, 1793.

The poor man would have made a better use of his time had he employed it in any other than a literary undertaking.

ART. 25. *The Test of Humanity. Addressed to Englishmen. By a Native of Africa.* pp. 24. 8vo. 6d. Scatcherd and Whitaker. London, 1792.

The native of Africa's pamphlet is eminently entitled to a serious and attentive perusal. We think, however, that he is not sufficiently decisive upon the subject.

ART. 26. *Reply to the Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, on Wednesday, Jan. 30, 1793. by Samuel, Lord Bishop of St. David's.* pp. 33. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. London, 1793.

It was not to be expected that Dr. Horsley should preach a sermon on such a day as the 30th of January, and at such a period as the present,

present, without much public curiosity being excited, and much public discussion being produced. The Bishop's political opinions are treated in the Reply with much bitterness and freedom. The author sets out with reprobating the Bishop's exordium of his sermon, in which he considers 'the freedom of dispute upon matters of such high importance as the origin of government, and the authority of sovereigns, as a foolish indulgence.' He then attempts to convict the Bishop of wishing to bottom the power of the sovereign on usurpation; in which we do not think he has succeeded; for the Bishop contends not that the sovereign has a right to the exercise of power because he has usurped it, but because it has been legally bestowed upon him. The author of the Reply is more successful in his second attack, for he convicts the Bishop of a total misrepresentation of the principles of republican writers with respect to a state of nature; and perhaps he is not less fortunate in his observations upon that part of the sermon which refers to the revolution of 1688.

Having sneered at Dr. Horsley's exposition of St. Paul's reasoning, the author of the Reply enters into a short discussion of the question, Whether kings are, or are not, the servants of the people? for which we must refer to his performance.

And now we come to that part of the Reply which by no means receives our approbation; it is that which relates to the execution of the King of France, which the author roundly defends. We believe that he is the first English writer who has defended that execution; and we trust that he will be the last. We pass on to the concluding part of the sermon, which is very eloquently reprobated in the Reply, though not, in our opinion, very argumentatively in that part which adverts to the execution of the first Charles.

This is an extraordinary production, which probably will lay the foundation of much investigation, discussion, and invective.

ART. 27. *Three Letters addressed to a Friend in India, by a Proprietor. Principally on the Subject of importing Bengal Sugars into England.* pp. 88. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. London, 1792.

The author of these letters investigates the proposal of importing Bengal sugars, upon the evidence with which he has been furnished by some late inquiries made into that subject at the East-India House. He seems to give a faithful statement of facts and opinions connected with the practicability of the scheme; but, in judging of its expediency, he warmly maintains the interests of the West-India planters.

ART. 28. *Considerations on the Case of the Debtors in this Kingdom. By G. W. Johnson, of the Hon. Society of Lincoln's-Inn.* pp. 45. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stewart. London, 1793.

The number and state of those at present in confinement for debt, are undoubtedly objects which merit the public attention, not only in a sympathetic, but, what is yet more interesting to the nation, a political point of view. The author of this pamphlet pretends not to furnish any specific plan for remedying the evil; but he mentions a few hints, formerly suggested, and recommends the prosecution of the purpose with laudable earnestness.

ART.

ART. 29. *A Tour through the Theatre of War, in the Months of November and December 1792, and January 1793. Interpersed with a Variety of curious, entertaining, and military Anecdotes. To which are subjoined, interesting Particulars of the Death of Louis XVI. By an Eye-witness of the Fact.* pp. 148. 8vo. 3s. Bew. London, 1793.

Part of the substance of this Tour has appeared in letters published in the *Diary*. The places which are the theatre of war having been often described by travellers, this production affords no other novelty than what relates to temporary circumstances, or occasional incidents, among which we meet with nothing that claims any particular attention. We are thence, however, enabled to inform our readers, upon the authority of the *tourist*, that General Dumourier is not a Prussian by birth, as has been reported, but the son of a commissary of the army. His father was a man of literary talents, and translated from the Italian the celebrated poem 'La Secchia Rapita,' of Ricciardetto, better known by the name of 'Il Tassoni.'

MEDICAL.

ART. 30. *General Instructions for the Choice of Wines and Spirituous Liquors. Dedicated to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. Part I. describes those Wines which are best to be used at the Tables of the Opulent. Part II. points out those Wines which alone ought to be administered to the Sick. Part III. contains Instructions concerning Spirituous Liquors, with Methods for detecting Abuses in them. And Part IV. an Account of many Disorders cured by the Wine called Toc-kay de Espagna; with Copies of Letters to some great Personages on the Subject of that Wine; as also Copies of Letters from Persons of Distinction relative to its extraordinary Effects. The whole essentially useful in all Families.* By D. McBride. pp. 86. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray. London, 1793.

Mr. McBride appears to be well acquainted with the kinds and qualities of wines and of spirituous liquors; with regard to the latter of which he gives some easy directions for detecting sophistication. He highly extols the curative virtues of a wine which he calls Toc-kay de Espagna; and indeed, as far as ample certificates can avail, he seems to have proved successful in endeavouring to establish its reputation.

ART. 31. *A Practical Treatise on the Efficacy of Stizolobium, or Cowhage (the Dolichos Pruriens of Linnæus), internally administered in Diseases occasioned by Worms. To which are added, Observations on other Anthelmintics of the West-Indies.* By William Chamberlaine, Surgeon, Fellow of the Medical Society of London. The Fifth Edition. pp. 92. 8vo. 2s. Printed for the Author, No. 29, Aylesbury-Street, Clerkenwell, London. 1792.

The cowhage, or cowitch, has been for some years celebrated as a powerful anthelmintic; and the testimony adduced in its favour by Mr. Chamberlaine, must add to the reputation it has obtained. The part of the plant used for this purpose is the setæ, adhering to the outside of the pod. When viewed through a microscope, they appear to be

long spicula, needle-shaped, hollow, transparent, and armed with points, exquisitely sharp and fine. Their mode of action, therefore, is justly supposed to be mechanical; and with regard to the proper quantity of the dose, it may be considered as arbitrary. The usual way of preparing and administering it by the present author, has been in the form of an electuary, with honey, molasses, or syrup, of a thick consistence. Of this electuary he gives a tea-spoonful to young children; and to adults one, or even two table-spoonfuls in a morning fasting. This may be repeated for two or three mornings; but in general there is seldom occasion to go beyond the third dose; and a gentle purge of some kind or other, commonly completes the cure for the time. Notwithstanding the sharp spiculae of the cowhage, experience evinces that it may be administered with perfect safety to the stomach and bowels; as the natural mucus with which those organs are covered defends them from irritation. There are, however, particular cases in which the exhibition of this medicine might prove dangerous. For instance, where the mucus of the stomach and intestines is abraded, or diminished, from dysentery, cholera morbus, or any other cause; or where there is a tendency towards inflammation in any part of the intestinal canal. The author gives suitable directions for preparing the medicine, and recites many cases of its efficacy.

ART. 32. *A Treatise concerning the Properties and Effects of Coffee. The Fifth Edition, with considerable additions. By Benjamin Moseley, M. D. Physician to Chelsea Hospital, Member of the College of Physicians of London, of the University of Leyden, of the American Philosophical Society, &c. Author of a Treatise on Dropsical Diseases, Military Operations, and the Climate of the West Indies.* pp. 80, 8vo. 1s.: Sewell. London, 1792.

In this treatise Dr. Moseley earnestly recommends the cultivation and general use of coffee; the former as conducing to the political advantage of the nation, and the latter to the health of the inhabitants. The Doctor even prefers West-India coffee, when cultivated, well picked, and well cured, to the best Arabian coffee. He is at great pains to invalidate the objections which have been made to the physical properties of this commodity, and endeavours to shew that they arise more from the management in the roasting, than from the natural qualities of the coffee-bean. The treatise contains much information relative to the subject; and whatever may be the result of the author's efforts to introduce the general use of coffee, the planters at least may congratulate themselves on having acquired so zealous an advocate for the interests of the West-India islands.

POLITICAL.

ART. 33. *Modern Patriotism; in Answer to the Letter of the Right Hon. C. J. Fox to his Constituents.* pp. 37. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hookham and Co. London, 1793.

An animated and argumentative expostulation with Mr. Fox on the conduct he adopted at the commencement of the present session of parliament;

parliaments; accompanied with remarks on that gentleman's letter to the electors of Westminster. The author, at the same time that he defends administration for refusing to acknowledge M. Chauvelin as the agent of the republic, contends that, by the correspondence with him, every essential purpose of a negotiation was answered; and points out the unsatisfactory nature of the replies of France to the requisitions of our cabinet. This pamphlet goes further towards a complete defence of administration than any we have hitherto seen, and is at the same time exempt from that personal rancour which too often disgraces the pages of our best political writers.

ART. 34. *Letter to Lord Grenville; in which the present State of the British Nation is considered in respect to France.* pp. 104. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. London, 1793.

A manly, temperate, and judicious performance. The author points out the absurdity of introducing a republic among the people of France, whose extent of territory, and profligacy of manners, render them totally incapable of living under such a form of government. He argues in favour of the British constitution, from the experience of the blessings the nation enjoys under it; condemns the ideal system of equality which the National Convention has made the basis of their innovating plans; arraigns the conduct of the societies for a parliamentary reform, and for the support of the freedom of the press; and illustrates the whole of his observations by apt quotations from Hume, Montesquieu, Blackstone, and Burke.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For APRIL 1793.

JEALOUSY OF REPUBLICS.

INGRATITUDE is the great political vice of republics; and treachery is the inseparable concomitant of ingratitude. They require a degree of integrity in their servants to which few can attain; they exercise a portion of jealousy from whose penetration no excellence is secure. In the moment of success unbounded confidence is reposed in the individual who promoted it; but when misfortune excites suspicion, the same individual is the earliest victim of its operation.

THE GENERAL OF THE FRENCH COMMONWEALTH.

retired before the Austrians defeated, but not disgraced; admired by his troops, and respected by his opponents. In ancient Rome he might have been thanked, like another Varrus, for

for not despairing of his country; in modern Paris he was calumniated without investigation, and doomed to destruction without the form of inquiry. The National Convention, forgetful of the danger which hung over their heads, and of the merits of the officer who had formerly saved them from destruction, resolved to arrest him at the head of his army, and summon him before a tribunal which was equivalent to condemnation, and whose members would be at once his judges and executioners. Unwilling to encounter certain destruction by patiently submitting to the predominating influence of an abandoned faction, he determined to atone for his past offences by proclaiming the infant Dauphin

KING OF THE FRENCH,

and restoring the constitution which had received the sanction of his unfortunate predecessor. In the execution of this scheme he relied on the support of the forces he commanded, the aid of the Imperialists, and the numerous adherents to royalty in France. His confidence was, in some measure, justified by the facility with which he seized the commissioners, and the countenance he received from the Emperor's generals. He might imagine that his fellow-citizens, wearied of the domination of their present rulers, would flock in crowds to his standard, and rally under the banners of that system of government from which they once expected so much happiness. Whatever faults might be imputed to the late king, the circumstances of his death had completely obliterated them from the memory of the humane and intelligent part of the nation; and they could neither affect the title, nor regulate the conduct, of the monarch who was substituted in his stead. He would be at once the object of the people's choice and care; and as he had never tasted of the odious prerogatives which his ancestors exercised, he would be more completely qualified to discharge the office of first magistrate in a free state. This event, while it restored internal tranquillity, would at the same time re-establish the general repose of the great European community, and pave the way for the extension of rational liberty through every corner of the continent. But however desirable this alteration might be, and however beneficial the consequences resulting from it, many things concurred to prevent Dumourier from being considered as the proper instrument to bring it about. The change in his sentiments had only taken place when the current of success was turned. The crimes of the Convention inspired the repeller of the Duke of Brunswick, and the hero of Jemappes, with no emotions of horror; his talents were consecrated to the propagation of their principles, and his victories insured them impunity

impunity for all their transgressions. The rude hand of Cobourg alone removed the film from his eyes, enabled him clearly to discern the badness of the cause for which he had been contending, and sincerely to deplore the mischiefs with which his achievements had been attended. Even the repeated checks he received were scarcely sufficient to convince him of his mistake; and nothing but apprehension for his personal safety could induce him to betray those interests which he once so ardently espoused.

It must likewise be remembered that

THE SEEDS OF REPUBLICANISM

were sown with an unsparing hand by the Constituent Assembly. The short period which elapsed between the termination of their labours and the calling of the Convention, was spent in perpetual struggles between the crown to recover its lost authority, and the democracy to obtain its entire destruction; while both branches of the legislature were equally regardless of their reciprocal duties, and equally ambitious of mutual encroachments. The interference of the combined powers alienated the minds of the moderate party, which was sincerely attached to the constitution, and induced it to give its countenance to the Jacobin faction. The hatred of royalty, which pervades the minds of Frenchmen, is not derived from a personal animosity against a particular monarch, but originates in an abhorrence to the kingly office; and in their estimation the wielding of a sceptre would be sufficient to convert an Aurelius into a Nero. The supporters of the ancient despotism, and the framers of the new constitution, have been involved in one undistinguished decree of proscription: the efforts which the attachment of the military enables the Convention to display, and that desire of domination which ever accompanies liberation from servitude, will awe the discontented into silence, and inspire their adherents with confidence. The restoration of the government of 1791 would be almost as obnoxious to the emigrant princes and the judicial and ecclesiastical aristocracies of France as the continuance of the present system; and the courts of Austria and Prussia can hardly be expected to be zealous in a cause which they used every method to destroy in the course of last summer. Dumourier, by his desertion, has provided for his own safety; and by the imprisonment of the commissioners he has obtained some pledge for the security of the royal family; but this occurrence can give us no assurance that peace will be speedily or permanently re-established.

The restoration of the Imperial authority in the

LOW COUNTRIES

was the immediate consequence of the Austrian victories. When the splendid miseries of royalty attract so much regard, the homely sorrows of the vulgar demand some share of our sympathy. In the course of this contest the inhabitants of the Netherlands have been doomed to feel 'every sad variety of pain; and change of place is only change of woe.' At one moment they were stifled in the embraces of French fraternisers; at another forced to crouch beneath the sword of military violence; at one time compelled to embrace a scheme of anarchy, and at another to submit to a system of oppression which violated every principle of genuine liberty and salutary subordination. The possession of these provinces is no longer obtained by multiplied sieges of fortified towns, which contract the extent of warlike operations, and confine their consequences within a narrower sphere; their dismantled cities must yield to the attack of a successful army; and a single battle may bring upon the country a train of calamities which it is as fruitless to resist as it is impossible to escape. Perhaps, however, the conduct of France was more destructive of the domestic repose of the people, and more inimical to the habits they had acquired, and the prejudices they had imbibed, than the most arbitrary acts of their former masters. Their affection for the Catholic faith must have inspired them with indignation against those lawless innovators who were substituting a code of infidelity in its stead; the tumultuous assemblies which were summoned together under the auspices of the republic, and the rash proceedings by which those meetings were distinguished; must have revived their predilection for those aristocratic tribunals which administered municipal justice with impartiality, however adverse they might be supposed to the progress of political freedom. If the governors of the Low Countries remember, in the season of returning prosperity, the promises of which they were so liberal on the eve of their late expulsion, it may still be possible to insure a stable and happy constitution to this hitherto distracted territory. In common with every other state on the continent, it retains the rudiments of that feudal system of legislation and policy which the researches of the profoundest inquirers, and the experience of many centuries, have proved to be capable of being reduced into a form of government the most adapted to European manners, and the most congenial to the present condition of mankind, without recurring to the visionary speculations of political economists, or the almost obliterated examples of the commonwealths of antiquity. But in order to accomplish this purpose, these provinces must be emancipated

emancipated from their dependence on the Imperial court, and their subjection to a foreign standing army. Of this event there is unfortunately little probability at the present era, and the excesses of the French have removed the prospect to a greater distance than ever, as their revolutions have had the effect of persuading many enlightened minds to leave the amendment of their condition to societies perverted from their original end, the fantastic improvements of polished life, or the arbitrary concessions of sovereign authority, rather than to principles deduced from the laws of truth and reason combining to form a strict political union among various independent communities.

A CONGRESS

has taken place at Antwerp between the leaders of the confederate armies, to determine on the propriety of continuing the contest. Had this precaution been taken before the war began, the effusion of human blood might have been spared, general peace preserved, and Louis the Sixteenth remained on the throne of his ancestors. Two plans seem to have offered themselves to the consideration of the allies: either by taking possession of the frontier towns to confine the French within their own dominions; or, by the assistance of the royal party, to destroy the republic. The resistance which the combined armies experienced in the course of last summer suggested, on the one hand, the propriety of moderation; and, on the other, the apprehensions which might be entertained for the spreading of the doctrines of the apostles of liberty in the Convention, which were rather checked in their growth than totally eradicated, shewed the necessity of further exertion. The behaviour of the French might be partly attributed to the despair with which they were seized on the approach of the enemy, and partly to the enthusiasm which follows success. It would be prudent to avoid exciting the despair which had already done such mischief, or rekindling that enthusiasm by risking a reverse of fortune. The impropriety of negotiating with the ruling powers in France, was an additional reason for adopting the defensive system. Tired, if not satiated, with mutual slaughter, the remnant which escaped might either provide for their own safety, by restoring the monarchy; or, if their obstinacy should provoke a renewal of hostilities, would fall an easy prey to their exasperated antagonists. The disunion which subsisted in the Convention was hastening the dissolution of that assembly; and perhaps it might be destroyed by a nation whose confidence it had abused, and whose dissensions it had not terminated, but had prolonged.

THE COURTS OF AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA,

the original fomenters of the contest, might atone for their past temerity by their present moderation, and by their conduct, demonstrate to the world that they have not been actuated by the lust of power, or ambition of conquest; that their victories have been obtained not for the purpose of extending their territories or gratifying their resentment, but to secure their own authority, and restore peace to the European continent. The case of

GREAT-BRITAIN, HOLLAND, AND SPAIN,

is distinguishable from that of the other countries at war with the republic. The innovating spirit which directed the counsels of France, the flagrant violation of treaties long adhered to, the danger which was threatened to governments long established, imposed upon them the necessity of a rupture in a manner too obvious to be resisted, and too pressing to be shunned. But though to retaliate may be just, to forbear is more expedient. Though we have been injured by attempts to excite sedition in this country, though the wealth and weakness of our allies rendered them an easy and a tempting prey to their rapacious and impoverished antagonists, yet if we are secured, and the Dutch protected, it would be consistent with the magnanimity and philanthropy of Britons to stop the current of those calamities which are desolating the nations of the earth. Administration glories in having saved the States of Holland from the despotic ambition of France; zealous (as from recent events we may presume) for the defence and propagation of the Christian religion, yet with boundless generosity it supported the tottering throne of Constantinople, and the dispirited successors of Mahomet, from the potent attack of the Russian tyrant; and, after these occurrences, can we imagine it will enter into the grand confederacy against the freedom of mankind, because its sacred gifts have been abused by the miscreant members of the National Convention?

During the course of

THE PRESENT WAR


the successes on either side have never been of a partial nature. The conquests of Dumourier and Custine were achieved at nearly the same instant; and about the same time they have been destined to defeat and disappointment. The military force of the Germanic empire has, when properly directed, been commonly found superior to that of France; but the disunion of the various members of which it is composed, and the difficulty

culty of reconciling its opposing interests, have made its weight less known, and its exertions less formidable. Upon the existing occasion this discordance has disappeared, and the houses of Austria and Brandenburg drawing the inferior princes of the empire around them by a resistless attraction, will have an opportunity of displaying the strength and resources of the aggregate body. The French commander has been already checked by the King of Prussia, and Mentz alone remains of his much-vaunted acquisitions. This city he seems resolved to defend to the utmost extremity; but his forces are too dispirited, his character too extravagant, and his supplies too feeble, to suppose he will be capable of a long resistance; and his discomfiture will lay open the whole of the adjoining provinces of France to the incursions of the allied armies. Savoy will be then the only remaining conquest which the republic retains: the King of Sardinia is too weak to attempt its recovery without foreign aid; its relinquishment will probably be the first stipulation if a pacification can be effected; and it is more owing to the concurrence of unforeseen circumstances than the vigour of the councils of Turin, or the valour of the Piedmontese troops, that the three-coloured flag is not flying on the Vatican, and the successor of St. Peter a prisoner at the bar of the Convention.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

The permanency of the present administration is founded on the personal talents of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Though he has been aided by the practical knowledge of business for which Mr. Dundas is distinguished, though he has been assisted in one part of his career by the masculine sense of Thurlow, and in another by the courtly elocution of Loughborough, yet the ultimate reliance of the nation has been placed upon him alone. Called as Mr. Pitt was to the helm of affairs at a time when the nation was in the crisis of a political malady, from which nothing but its own internal energy could recover it, the favourable symptoms which followed his nomination must be rather attributed to general exertion than to individual merit, however conspicuous. 'If (says the sagacious Montesquieu) a state is destroyed by the loss of a battle, some more general cause must have made the loss of a battle productive of such an event.' And if this country was saved by the capacity of Mr. Pitt, its situation, independent of his efforts, must have enabled him to effect this beneficial alteration in our condition. This observation does not, however, derogate from the reputation of the minister, which is founded upon exertions in which none can participate, and in measures of which few can claim a share.

a share. After having for many years subdued, by the superiority of his single genius, the once splendid oratory of Burke, the brilliant argumentation of Fox, the logical acuteness of Wyndham, and the sarcastic wit of Sheridan; at the commencement of the present session, he divided his opponents among each other, by compelling them to acknowledge the propriety of his conduct, and the rectitude of his views. Careful in the collection of the public money, and frugal in its expenditure, he has increased the revenue, and diminished the national debt. But as he has been supposed by some to have connected the flourishing state of Great Britain with his own continuance in power, so it may now be imagined that the calamities of the mercantile part of the community can be alleviated only by his removal from office. By the provisions of the alien bill he has been upbraided with infringing the known prerogatives of the crown; and by the act for preventing traitorous correspondence, with having introduced a portion of severity into our criminal code, equally derogatory from the mild genius of British legislation, and the general illumination of the eighteenth century. Active and indefatigable in the discharge of his peculiar duties, he has been accused of having introduced slothfulness and inability into other departments of the state. In order to wipe off the latter imputation, we would advise him to awaken the first lord of the admiralty, and the secretary at war, from the slumber in which they are indulging; and if we are engaged in a contest for our laws, our liberties, and our religion, let it be conducted with a zeal proportioned to the magnitude of the objects in dispute, and an alacrity which alone will bring it to a speedy and honourable termination.

 Communications for THE ENGLISH REVIEW are requested to be sent to Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-street, London; where Subscribers for this Monthly Performance are respectfully desired to give in their Names.

T H E
E N G L I S H · R E V I E W,

For M A Y 1793.

ART. I. *Description of the Plain of Troy; with a Map of that Region, delineated from an actual Survey. Read in French before the Royal Society of Edinburgh, by the Author, M. Chevalier, Fellow of that Society, and of the Academies of Metz, Cassel, and Rome. Translated from the Original not yet published, with Notes and Illustrations, by Andrew Dalzel, M. A. F. R. S. Edin. Professor of Greek and Principal Librarian in the University of Edinburgh. pp. 153. 4to. 10s. 6d. boards. Cadell. London, 1792.*

VERY singular has been the fortune of Troy, in the history of our race. From the mere accident of soliciting the attention of a Greek poet by its siege, and of having this siege made the subject of two poems by him; a small town on the coast of Asia, that engaged in a petty warfare at an early period, and was taken, sacked, and half-burned, at the conclusion of it, rose to a celebrity in history popular and philosophic, much beyond its natural right; by sharing, in all the renown of its poet, and mounting on the wings of this eagle towards the sky. Troy has thus become the earliest *certain* object of *profane* history; and the siege of Troy, though known only from the poetical romances of Homer, has been repeatedly described in sober narrative. Yet this casual splendour thrown over an obscure town, was redoubled by its casual reverberation from the Romans. These, priding themselves in the bravery and heroism that had been sung so well by Homer, and, with a generosity not usual among them, preferring the patriot bravery and patriot heroism of a Hector to that of all the Grecians; disclaimed their real origin from the Greeks, and fancied themselves the descendants of the Trojans. This, which was the mere humourfomeness of a schoolboy, the successes of the

Romans soon raised into dignity and emblazoned with glory among themselves, and among all their subject nations. When the Romans first landed in Asia upon their career of conquest, they instantly repaired to Troy, as the grand cradle of their nation; embraced the poor, ragged inhabitants of the half-tiled houses, as the cousins and the brothers of the conquerors of Europe; and offered up sacrifices to their petty Minerva in their petty citadel, as the common protectress of them both. And, when even this empire itself was swept away, the school-boy fondness had been so long engrafted upon the minds of the Roman subjects, and was still so cherished by the poems which had given it birth, that half the nations of their European part of the empire, set themselves gravely for ages to frame an equal descent from the Trojans for themselves. This impertinence has but lately been banished from the realms of history. Yet it has left behind it, and will for ever leave probably, a strong and lively, but rational and manly, desire of knowing all which investigation can report, concerning the remains and site of a city once so idolised by the fancy of mankind, and still so interesting to the minds of scholars. Numbers have accordingly been upon the fields of Troy, from the regions of western Europe; in order to indulge themselves with the view, and to gratify their countrymen with an account, of what a lapse of about *three thousand years* has still left there. 'One modern traveller in particular,' says Mr. Dalzel in his preface, 'I mean the late Mr. Robert Wood, from whom much was expected, and who published the result of his inquiries under the title of, *A Comparative View of the ancient and present State of the Troade*; had been extremely unsuccessful in his researches. Instead of elucidating the subject, he seemed to have involved it in greater obscurity than ever; and he, who had the highest admiration of Homer, and who found that great poet agreeing with nature every where else, was reduced to the mortifying necessity of acknowledging, that he could find scarce any resemblance betwixt the pictures in the *Iliad*, and that part of a country which we may suppose the poet would have been careful to describe, with more than ordinary precision.' M. Chevalier, therefore, is to do what Mr. Wood could not do; and we will attend him with care, in his efforts. The work is illustrated with M. Chevalier's large map of the plain of Troy, with Mr. Pope's and Mr. Wood's maps, and with M. Chevalier's map of ancient Troy and its environs.

We apprehend M. Chevalier, like most of the travellers who have preceded him, would have confounded the Troy which Alexander ordered to be enlarged and beautified, with ancient Troy. But he begins with stating the site of *that*, before he proceeds

proceeds to the position of *this*. This is at *Eski-Stambael*, where are many remains; and ‘Turks are to be found at every step, employed in breaking sarcophagi of white marble, adorned with bass-reliefs and inscriptions, to make bullets of them or decorations for their own burying-places: for a long while, the castles of the Dardanelles have been furnished with bullets from the ruins of Alexandria; and that magazine is not yet nearly exhausted. The walls of Alexandria are almost entire. They are eight feet thick, built of cut-stone, and flanked with towers. Among the ruins of Alexandria are still to be seen a stadium, a theatre, two temples, and a large edifice,’ commonly called Priam’s palace by mariners, when Priam’s palace must have been a great way from the sea, and —this is almost close upon the shore.’ This our author thinks to be a bath, principally from ‘the large semicircular building, which is to be found at the south end of the fabric, and in which the canals of the aqueduct, which bring the water thither, terminate. If Pococke and Chandler had seen these canals; if they had penetrated into their vaults, which are still incrustated with the sediment of water; if they had observed the direction of the aqueduct, which terminates there; they would not surely have mistaken its design.’ *We* beg leave to add, that these buildings are *generally* the work of the Romans; as Augustus planted a Roman colony in it, and adorned it with many buildings of magnificence; and as our author himself says, that he ‘was struck at first sight with the resemblance betwixt this edifice,’ the baths above, ‘and the baths of Dioclesian and Caracalla—at Rome.’

Leaving Alexandria, ‘I pursued my journey along the shore of the Egean Sea. I soon arrived at a vast plain,’ to the north, ‘which I should have been tempted to take for that of Troy, if I had observed in it the course of any river.’ He then crosses two rivers or brooks, not noticed in his narrative, but apparent in his map; and comes to ‘a considerable stream, whose water—*seems* to deviate from its natural course, into a new canal that conveys it into the adjacent valley. *It is easy to perceive*, that the alteration made in the course of this rivulet *has been made by the hand of man*,’ though the river before, as we are told, only ‘*seems* to deviate from its natural course.’ There is, adds our author, ‘at a little distance; a mill, which perhaps might have been the real cause, of the rivulets,’ the current being called a rivulet now though a considerable stream before, ‘being diverted from its ancient channel.—Nor would it be at all surprising, if the course of this stream had been altered by Herodes Atticus,’ who built an aqueduct at Alexandria; ‘and that the aqueduct, whose ruins extends

‘ towards the plain of Troy, had been intended to convey its ‘ waters to Alexandria Troas,’ when the new channel is confessedly about ‘ four leagues’ from Alexandria (p. 2), and when ‘ its progress rigidly retains the direction of a straight line,’ along the mill, to the sea.

We mean not, however, to pursue the track of our author’s researches and ideas, till those ripened into arguments and these mounted into convictions. We mean only to present the result of all, with all its evidence attached to it. But let us observe before we come to this point, that Mr. Dalzel, in a note of p. 49, cites Sozomen for saying, that Constantine, before he pitched upon Byzantium for the imperial city, had once ‘ taken possession of the plain which lies before Ilium, near the Hellespont, beyond the tomb of Ajax, where the Greeks, at the time when they were engaged in the expedition against Troy, are said to have had the station for their ships and their tents;’ that this spot is evidently the hill of Alexandria, because this is still called by the Turks ‘ Eski-Stambael,’ or ‘ Old Constantinople’ (p. 4); and that M. Chevalier’s supposition of their so calling it, ‘ as if, from its stupendous remains, they judged it worthy of being the ancient capital of *their* empire,’ is all erroneous, the name referring to a fact in tradition, and history coming in to the aid of etymology. And let us equally add our author’s characters of the three travellers of note immediately preceding him. ‘ This part of his [Dr. Pococke’s] work, though full of errors, and in many respects obscure, proved however to me a very useful guide in my researches. That traveller had seen the greatest part of the tomb,’ &c. Since his time, ‘ Dr. Richard Chandler—visited the Troad some years ago: the confidence and ease with which this learned and respectable traveller speaks of the tombs of Achilles,’ &c. ‘ form a striking contrast to the cautious circumspection of Pococke.’ Mr. Dalzel has very candidly urged in a note, the reason assigned by Dr. Chandler himself for this peremptoriness; that in an essay which he intended to publish, he should state the arguments on which it was founded. Yet, as Mr. Dalzel is obliged to allow, since this essay has been thus announced for *fifteen years without any publication*, and since the Doctor appears also to have ‘ penetrated into the region of Troy no farther than a journey of two hours,’ the apology is repelled by the fact, *we* think, and the charge of peremptoriness remains unanswered. ‘ I should have wished most cordially likewise, to have called to my aid the observations of Mr. Wood—; but I have not the smallest hesitation to declare, —that Mr. Wood was quite bewildered in the Troad.’

Having

Having stated his objections in general to the travellers, we now proceed to give his own accounts under three principal points; bringing together all the scattered parts of each description, and interposing our own observations occasionally.

PLAIN OF OLD TROY.

P. 62. 'Two curved ranges of hills extend from the mountains of Ida towards the sea, the one directed towards Rhœtéum, and the other towards Sigéum, and forming each a semicircular line, terminate in the plain.—Now this is also properly called the Plain of Troy, and was, according to the poet, the scene of the greatest number of battles; for it is of considerable breadth.' So speaks Strabo from his author, in M. Chevalier's translation. 'I obtained a view,' remarks M. Chevalier himself in p. 27 before, 'of the whole extent of the large plain. It seemed to me of a semicircular shape. Of the two chains of hills which surround it, one appears to run in a direction towards the promontory of Jeni-chehr,' commonly called by our writers Cape Janizary, and supposed to be the Sigeian promontory, 'and the other towards the point of *In-Tapé-Gheulu*,' supposed to be the Rhœtéan promontory. 'The village of Jeni-chehr,' M. Chevalier tells us in p. 151, 'which is inhabited by Greeks, is situate upon the extremity of a high promontory, which, together with that of the Thracian Chersonesus, forms the entry of the canal of the Hellespont. The moment I entered [corrected in errata into, *was going to enter*] the church, I observed upon a block of marble the two following words, which were scarcely legible, ΦΑΝΟΛΙΚΟ ΕΙΜΙ—. They are the beginning of the famous Sigéan inscription, well known to the learned.' This village is ennobled with such an inscription, let us add, because it is near the site of a very ancient town, 'Troadis—locus,' says Pliny, '—ipfa Troas, Antigoniam dicta, nunc Alexandria, colonia Romana;—et in promontorio quondam Sigæum oppidum*.'—'At a small distance from the village of Jeni-chehr, I went up to the top of the high promontory, which commands a view of the extensive plain already mentioned' (p. 17). M. Chevalier then pursued his journey along the shore of the sea; and, like another Chryses on the very same beach,

Βῆ δ' ἀκίων παρὰ θινὰ πολυφλοίσβοιο θαλάσσης,

Silent he wandered by the sounding main.

POPE.

He thus crossed a river, and reached 'a prominence or tongue of land, which advances into the plain [it should be *sea*], ex-

* L. V. c. 30.

‘actly opposite to the Cape of Jeni-chehr’ (p. 20), and forms the Rhœtœan promontory near *In-Tapé-Gbeulu*. Betwixt these two promontories were the ships of the Grecians drawn-upon the beach; and, as Homer says, filled the whole wide mouth of the shore, all that was comprehended within the promontories;

Πήσαν απαντες
 Ηιονος σιομα μακρον, εσσι συνεργατον ακραι.

The tents and vessels of Ulysses were in the centre of the bay, those of Ajax and Achilles at the two promontories of it:

When baleful Eris, sent by Jove’s command,
 The torch of discord blazing in her hand,
 Thro’ the red skies her bloody sign extends,
 And, wrapt in tempests, o’er the fleet descends;
 High on *Ulysses’* bark, her horrid stand
 She took, and thunder’d thro’ the seas and land;
 Ev’n *Ajax* and *Achilles* heard the sound,
 Whose ships, remote, the guarded navy bound.

‘The tent of the commander in chief,’ says M. Chevalier, accordingly in p. 97, ‘occupied the centre of the camp, Achilles ‘had his station at the right wing near the *Sigéan* promontory, ‘and Ajax at the left near that of *Rhœtéum*.’ He thus speaks a little more largely, than he is authorised by Homer. Yet, in contradiction to Homer and himself, in p. 105 he says that, ‘with ‘respect to the large circular bason to be seen near to,’ and *beyond*, ‘the Rhœtœan promontory, and which, because in reality ‘it is obstructed by a sand-bank, the Turks call *Karanlik-Li-mani*, the *shut-haven*; I should be tempted to believe, that this ‘was the haven of the Greeks.’ This is not only contrary to what he has already said, but physically and historically impossible to be true; physically, for such a bason to hold the numerous navy of Greece; historically, because Pliny thus places expressly the haven of the Greeks, where Homer and Nature unite to place it, between the promontories, ‘*Sigæum*—, dein ‘*portus Achæorum*, —extra *sinum* sunt Rhœtæa,’ &c*.

[To be continued.]

* L. V. c. 30.

ART.

ART. II. *Principles of Moral and Political Science; being chiefly a Retrospect of Lectures delivered in the College of Edinburgh. By Adam Ferguson, LL. D. and F. R. S. Ed. late Professor of Moral Philosophy.* pp. 863. 4to. 2 vols. 1l. 16s. boards. Edinburgh: printed for Cadell, London. 1792.

THE author of this work is already well known to the literary world by his History of the Roman Republic, and his Essay on Civil Society. And as his former productions have raised him to eminence as an historian, the present performance must establish his reputation as a philosopher. It may be considered as the result of his speculations on morality and politics during the period of his professorship in the university of Edinburgh, as a testimony of the ability with which he discharged his duty in that office, and as a valuable legacy to those who were the immediate objects of his tuition, as well as to the community at large. In his method of treating his subject he has avoided with equal care the excessive abstractedness which characterises some of our northern philosophers, and the loose declamation which has been so justly imputed to others. His perceptions are matured by experience, and his doctrines illuminated by eloquence; and the whole of his production will tend to accelerate the era when, by repeated experimental reasonings upon moral subjects, their principles will be established on a basis which scepticism and infidelity will vainly endeavour to shake. In order, however, to enable our readers to form an estimate of the author's merit, we will proceed to lay before them an analysis of the work, accompanied with such occasional remarks as may naturally arise from the subject.

Dr. Ferguson remarks, that subjects may be considered in two points of view, their actual state, and attainable excellence: the first including mere statements of fact, the second comprising objects of estimation or contempt, praise or censure. After having stated, that, with regard to man, knowledge and power are nearly correlative terms, pointed out the necessity of attending to the facts of which we are conscious, as the only method of acquiring accurate information of the philosophy of the human mind, and defending his predilection to the doctrines of the stoics on the grounds of their intrinsic excellence and general acceptance, he proceeds to state the plan on which his work is conducted:

‘ The work consists of two parts. The first relating to the fact, or matter of description, and statement, in the history of man's progressive nature. The second to the Principles of Right, or the foundations of judgment and choice, whether in matters of personal quality, law, manners, or political establishments.’

Dr. Ferguson goes on to consider the place and description of man in the scale of being. He observes, that it is the peculiar distinction of living natures to carry a principle of active exertion in themselves; and that the distinctions of animal nature appear in will, their fitness for action, their capacity of enjoyment and suffering, the principle of self-preservation, and their desire of superiority over beings of the same species with themselves. Animals are said to be either associating and gregarious, or solitary. Under the first designation the fact authorises us to comprehend the species of man:

‘ The general combination of parts in the system of nature; the mutual subserviency of different orders of being on this globe; the natural attachment of individuals, in every species of living creature, to some others of their kind; and the frequency of gregarious and political assemblage in the description of different animals, must greatly facilitate the admission of society as a part in the destination of man; or indeed, joined to the fact that men are actually found in society, render argument on the subject of his qualification for such a state entirely superfluous.’

Families may be considered as the elementary forms of society. Before the force of the first family affection is spent relations multiply, and instinctive attachments grow into habit; the supposed descendants of a race are multiplied into a tribe; and hence the coalition of families, tribes, and extensive tracts of country into nations under political establishments, which combine the strength and resources of many for common protection and safety. But man is destined to rise above this predicament; he is formed to range with a system, and make a part in a comprehensive view of things; and no one member of the great body of civil society is detached from the whole, or can enjoy his good, or suffer his evil, without some participation with others. Language, which may be justly considered as the great medium of communication and intercourse between animals in general, and man in particular, may be divided into three principal parts, mute signs, speech, and written characters. The use of speech is peculiar to man; but whether it be natural to him, is a question of greater difficulty, though we may clearly perceive the ground of that preference which mankind have universally given to the practice of speech, without supposing it otherwise natural, than as it is obviously expedient and recommended by use. Mind, or the principle of life in man, is competent to the production of speech, without considering it as instinctive, or tracing it to the special exertion of one or a few ingenious men. But though words appear to have had as many original stocks as there were separate hordes or societies of men, yet the invention was original perhaps only to a few, or, in
other

other terms, it appears that men have rather copied their written characters from the model of a few original inventions. Man is distinguished among the animals by his intelligence, or mind, intimately conscious of itself, as it exists in thought discernment, and will. To man the faculties of observation and will are given as an equivalent for every other advantage enjoyed by inferior animals. While

‘The brutes are directed by their instincts to the use of means, prior to any knowledge of the end, man is directed by his propensity to an end, whether of preservation or advancement, and qualified to observe, and to choose for himself the means of obtaining that end. Hence the uniformity of works performed by individuals of the same species of animal, and continued from the first to the last generation in each: and hence the indefinite variety of materials, and manner of execution employed by men in pursuit of the same objects.’

Our author, in his second chapter, proceeds to consider mind, or the characteristics of intelligence. After a few remarks on the doctrine of materialism, into the formal discussion of which he rather avoids entering, he adopts the most general arrangement of the powers of the mind, those of understanding, and will, including under the first all the operations which terminate in apprehension or knowledge; and, under the other, all the principles of choice or rejection, which terminate in will. The hypothesis of Dr. Reid, in opposition to the ideal system of the ancient philosophers and modern sceptics, is implicitly received; and, resting upon this assumption, Dr. Ferguson refers our sources of knowledge to four titles, consciousness, perception, testimony, and inference. By consciousness we obtain every species of knowledge which relates to ourselves; in perception we have cognizance of objects distinct or apart from ourselves; by testimony we receive information of what others have perceived or known; and by inference we collect from facts or circumstances, previously admitted, some farther information, which would of itself or otherwise be wanting. In examining the degree of credit due to evidence, the fundamental rule is, to avoid the extreme of indiscriminate credulity on the one hand, or indiscriminate scepticism on the other. Minds differ originally in respect to the degree in which they possess the quality of observation; and they who have it most, possess intelligence itself in the highest degree, or at least are most likely to be distinguished in the use of their faculties. Memory is the continued possession or power of recollecting what we continue to know of a subject formerly perceived. It is founded on the association of ideas which connects subjects together, either by contiguity of time or place, similitude, or the more important relations of cause or effect. In the use of what we have any

way

way conceive or remember, we have occasion frequently for the farther purpose of thought to state our subjects together or separately, and one subject fully or partially, according to the intention of the mind in that instance. The first of these modes of conception is termed imagination, the other abstraction. The faculty of abstraction, applied to matters of description, gives the species and genera of things; applied to the succession of events, gives the laws of nature; and applied to matters of choice, gives the laws of morality: and the history of the understanding may be thus pursued through its several functions of consciousness, perception, observation, memory, imagination, abstraction, and science. Man, though in general let loose from the trammels of instinct, is yet, in certain respects, directed by instincts which precede the knowledge of his ends; and as animals have, in general, instinctive propensities to the use of their organs, so man has, in general, to the use of his faculties. In his relation to other men he has indefinite scope for the exercise of his active dispositions. In nature at large he is surrounded with specimens of beauty and deformity, of excellence and defect. In the distinction of excellence and defect, he finds the occasions of various passions, as of pride, vanity, emulation, magnanimity, or elevation of mind. From the various modifications of the affections of the mind, exhibited in different circumstances of the object, arise the passions. But notwithstanding any bias originally given to the nature of man, or to the character of the individual, he is voluntary in every choice, and still master of his own actions. The sources of caprice and adventitious affection or passion, are report or prevailing opinion, to which some men implicitly submit, and from which others uniformly dissent. Passion once entertained, serves to confirm the notion on which it is founded; and, according to the general law of our nature, subjects and qualities once conceived together, recur together as often as either is presented to the mind. Language is the great field of arbitrary association. Passions are thus communicated from one person to another, without any knowledge of the cause; and sentiments of the greatest force are produced on frivolous occasions. The associations of superstition or religious enthusiasm, and of honour, whether real or imaginary, are of the most powerful effect in the government of mankind; and

‘Such is the force of association in these matters, and such its effect on our conduct, even in opposition to conviction and reason, that though we are sensible our notions are ill-founded, yet we are not released from their influence, until we have worn off one habit by degrees, or in the same manner in which it was framed, and until we have substituted another by a similar practice or use in its stead.’

The

The existence of the freedom of will, or choice, in man, is said to be founded on the evidence of consciousness; and therefore attempts to support it by arguments are nugatory; and the reasonings in favour of moral necessity are confuted with a degree of brevity, acuteness, and perspicuity, which have been seldom employed on this much-controverted subject. Moral science relates to human nature, under the aspect of its specific excellence or defect, and regards the distinction of good and evil. And as a physical law of nature is a general state of what is uniform or common in the order of things, and is addressed to the powers of perception and sagacity, so a moral law of nature is equally general, though an expression not of fact, but of what is good, and is addressed to the powers of estimation and choice. To the inquirer into the sources of religion among mankind we may answer, that if the apprehension of a final cause or design implies the perception of intelligence, if design be the incommunicable attribute of mind, and if there be in the nature of things any intimation of final cause or design, thither we may refer the first apprehension of intelligent power in the system of nature. The physical evil which exists in the world is accounted for as being suited to the nature of man, and of every created intelligence, and therefore required in a system of which intelligent being is the capital form and highest class of existence; and with respect to those evils which result from the depravity of man's nature, and the frequency of his crimes, the common, and perhaps the true solution is, that man, being intelligent and free, is alone accountable for the acts of his will.

Dr. Ferguson, in his third chapter, treats of the progressive nature of man. After some observations on the distinction between progressive and stationary nature, and a short refutation of the hypotheses of Hobbes and Rousseau in regard to the state of nature, he proceeds to point out the principles of progression in the nature of man. The principles of progression in human nature are the vegetating and animal powers; a power of intelligence conscious of itself and of its gradual enlargement, from the various operations of which arise the political, the commercial, and the fine arts. To the end for which any or all of these arts are practised, the principle of ambition applies itself; and, by the continued practice of them, habits are acquired. Habit is then considered as affecting our thoughts, our inclinations, and capacities of enjoyment and suffering, our acquisitions of strength and power, and in its results on the general history of the species. Ambition operates in the concerns of mere animal life, in the provision of subsistence; of accommodation and ornament; in the progress of society, and in the choice

choice of its institutions; in the attainments of knowledge, and in every aim at perfection, whether in executing works of genius, or in the honourable part which the worthy desire to support through life. The commercial arts originate in the wants and necessities of animal life. They are continued, multiplied, and extended, to supply a continued or increasing consumption, and to gratify multiplied and accumulating wants; they terminate in the acquisition of wealth, accommodation, and ornament. The political arts originate in the wants and defects of instinctive society. The fine arts, with all the elegant productions of fancy or taste, spring from the stock of society, and are the branches or foliage which adorn its prosperity, or actually contribute to the growth or vigour of the plant. The different modifications of human apprehension include history, which consists in the detail of particulars and science, which consists in the knowledge of general principles and their application. Mere efforts of ingenuity, which are made to adorn what is otherwise useful and necessary, or to gratify an original disposition of the mind to fabricate for itself on the models of beauty presented in nature, are commonly termed the fine arts; of which description are the arts of poetry, painting, sculpture, and music. This chapter is concluded by the author's remarks on the progress of moral apprehension, and his observations on a future state; and we would recommend the whole of it as meriting particular attention, it conveying the soundest instruction in the most perspicuous and elegant language.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *An Essay on the Materia Medica. In which the Theories of the late Dr. Cullen are considered; together with some Opinions of Mr. Hunter, and other celebrated Writers. By James Moore, Member of the Surgeons Company.* pp. 330. 8vo. 5s. boards. Cadell. London, 1792.

IN this *Essay*, which is principally a review of Dr. Cullen's treatise on the *Materia Medica* in two volumes quarto, Mr. Moore is naturally led to follow the arrangement of the Scotch professor's work. Such a plan affords the writer an opportunity of dilating and contracting his observations at pleasure. Where he believes himself to have any thing important to remark, he may expatiate at large, and over barren topics he may hasten as rapidly as he chooses. Nevertheless there is a disadvantage which more than compensates for this advantage. If the fundamental work be not both important and popular, the critique can never be very interesting. The *parasitical*, therefore, necessarily follows the fate of the standard production; it may,

may, indeed, die sooner, but it can scarcely hope for a longer duration; and Dr. Cullen's treatise, as far as we can judge, either from its contents or from the reception it has met with from the public, is scarce able to support itself.

On the subject of *temperaments* it was easy for Mr. Moore to shew how complicated, inconsistent, and improbable, the hypotheses of his original are: they belong, indeed, to the worst species of hypotheses, viz. those which cannot be brought to the test of observation. It has seldom been our fortune to meet with any clear and satisfactory ideas in writers upon this subject; and of course we were not surprised to find Mr. Moore, in the remarks he has subjoined to his criticism on Dr. Cullen, equally fanciful with his predecessors. The reader will smile at such arguments as the following. He is attempting to prove that certain fixed and habitual marks generally indicate certain dispositions of the mind: 'It cannot be imagined,' he says, 'that God would give us senses liable generally to error; and form our sight, in particular, in such a manner, that we should look with hatred upon a good, and with esteem upon a wicked man.' Multitudes, we believe, will unite, in testifying that God has given them senses extremely fallible in this respect, and that *fronti nulla fides* still retains its value, as a caution, in spite of Messrs. Moore and Lavater. Many of his other arguments appear equally inconclusive. Nothing is more common than to see a *sanguineous* temperament of body associated with a *choleric* disposition of mind; and Mr. Moore himself is aware of the great power of education; which, when taken in its most comprehensive and proper sense for all the external circumstances that affect an individual, is nearly omnipotent in forming the character. Hence we are disposed to imagine that the doctrine of temperaments has very little foundation or utility. Every person, by applying it to individuals, must, however, determine on this point for himself.

The next article afforded us more pleasure in the perusal. The author has justly remarked, that, until the term *putrefaction* be defined, the dispute, whether any such process takes place in the living body, must be a mere verbal controversy. Upon the authority of Spallanzani and Mr. Hunter, he contends against Dr. G. Fordyce, that the food is chemically dissolved in the stomach. He endeavours to render it probable, in opposition also to the opinion of the same writer, that the earthy part of animal and vegetable substances are really nutritious, and that we obtain calcareous earth and *calx phosphorata* from our aliments. It is much more probable to us, that these substances are formed from their elements by a process common to a great variety of animals, who carry it on a larger or smaller scale.

scale. Dr. Cullen thinks that *acid, oil, and sugar*, are those ingredients of vegetable food that are fitted to enter into the composition of the animal fluid. This opinion is not surprising in Dr. Cullen, who was not sufficiently acquainted with the refined modern chemistry to perceive that, in order to account for nutrition and secretion, we must have recourse to much simpler elements than those which he considers as the materials which the chemical apparatus of animals has to work upon.

Mr. Moore believes that the acid so frequently found in the stomach is not produced by the fermentation of vegetables, but secreted by the coats of the stomach itself. He supports his opinion by the following considerations :

‘ Acidities are often perceived in the stomach within half an hour after eating; whereas it takes several days before the same vegetables can produce as complete an acid by fermentation out of the body, although placed in circumstances the most favourable for that process.

‘ In order to account for the sudden appearance of acid in the stomach, those who credit the acefcent fermentation, are compelled to suppose, that there is a ferment able to produce the sudden fermentation which takes place there. Which hypothesis, besides other objections, is liable to this, that we are acquainted with no ferment so powerful as this is supposed to be. So that the supporters of the above hypothesis have first to suppose a ferment, for whose existence we have only their assertion; and then that this ferment is more powerful than any other known in nature, for which we have no better authority.

‘ But, notwithstanding every objection, let us for a moment admit, that a ferment, with all the powers requisite, actually exists in the stomach; still this ferment must be an acid.

‘ Here then it is granted, that the stomach secretes an acid. Well, since we are in possession of this, why should we have recourse to a second kind of acid, produced by the fermentation of vegetable substances?

‘ Is it because the acid seems sometimes to be in too great quantity to be produced by secretion alone?

‘ If so, it may be answered, that in healthy stomachs the quantity of acid is always small, and that excess of acidity is a disease. And why should an extraordinary secretion of the juices in the stomach appear more singular than that of other secreted liquors? The milk, the bile, and the tears, are formed in uncommonly large quantities, when the breasts, the liver, and the lachrymal glands, are affected in a particular way.

‘ There is, however, another circumstance which convinces me that acidities in the stomach are not owing to fermentation.

‘ For if this were the case, such acidities would principally take place after eating those vegetable substances which ferment most readily; and less acidity, or perhaps none, would occur after eating such

such vegetable substances as are known to ferment with difficulty, or not at all.

‘ But the reverse of this is found in fact; for dispeptic patients complain but little of acidity, after eating the pleasant acid and sweet fruits, whose juices quickly ferment out of the body; whereas the same patients are much disturbed with acidities upon eating the oily kernels of nuts, which resist the acetous fermentation. And, what seems quite decisive of the argument, expressed oils and fat, which occasion the greatest acidity, are absolutely incapable of growing sour.

‘ To all this it may be added, that if acidity in the stomach were owing to the acefcent fermentation, a dissolution of the vegetable substance in the stomach would necessarily take place at the same time; consequently such acidities would occasion a quicker digestion. Whereas it is well known that the excess of acid is a proof of a slow and ineffectual digestion.’

Throughout the article *astringents* Mr. Moore differs from Dr. Cullen, and, as it will generally be allowed, we imagine, with great propriety. Dr. Cullen supposes that some astringents, as acids and alcohol, act ‘ by contracting solids formed of the same fluids which those matters coagulate;’ and that others act by *tanning*. It is sufficient to ask for the proofs of such opinions, and, when we find none given, to dismiss them from our notice. Mr. Moore denies the existence of substances capable of *astringing* or *constringing* the living fibre; and he refers all astringents to the head of tonics; and under this head he gives, probably without being aware of the coincidence, the very doctrine of Dr. John Brown; making bitters, the tonics of Dr. Cullen, to be only the less diffusible stimulants. Vinous liquors, he observes, as well as bitters, quicken digestion. But ‘ vinous liquors act instantaneously, not only on the stomach, but their cordial effects extend immediately to the whole nervous system. Bitters, on the other hand, act more slowly; they produce but little excitement through the general nervous system; but they stimulate very considerably the secreting surface and nerves of the stomach. . . . Vinous liquors, therefore, promote digestion best, if swallowed immediately after our food;’ bitters, if taken an hour or two before eating. Dr. Cullen is at a loss how to account for the injury occasioned to the stomach by the long-continued use of bitters. Mr. Moore easily explains the phenomenon, according to the Brunonian or Hunterian doctrine. Mr. Moore adds, as a practical observation, that iron filings are a better tonic than rust of iron.

Under the title *narcotics* Mr. Moore bestows just praise on his author for contributing to allay the terrors, formerly so prevalent,

valent, concerning opium. We add, that Brown has done infinitely more towards bringing this noble medicine into free use, and, what is of much more importance, into *continued* use, dose after dose, as the bark is given in intermittents. To Dr. Cullen's hypothesis, that opium and narcotics in general render the nervous fluid less elastic and less moveable, it would have been surprising if Mr. Moore had not objected. He ridicules, with equal good-nature and justice, the Professor's supplemental hypothesis, that the medicines of this class act as *indirect stimulants*, viz. by exciting the vigilance of the *vis medicatrix naturæ* to counteract the threatened torpor. Mr. Moore considers them as stimulants—he adds, 'that the name, *stimulants*, given to narcotics, will surprise many.' Surely his apprehensions are groundless, if by *many* he means persons accustomed to inquiries of this nature. It is so long since this opinion has been advanced, it has been so often repeated, and so ably maintained, that no practitioner of medicine can now be startled at it. And when Mr. Moore speaks with the diffidence of a person who thinks he is advancing something new, his manner must be affected, or else he must have been strangely inattentive to what has been lately passing in the medical world.

Under the articles *sypilis* and *mercury* our critic quits Dr. Cullen, and takes up Mr. Hunter. He assents to the greater part of this gentleman's opinions, contending, however, for a venereal fermentation. This opinion he is induced to adopt, because he cannot conceive how so small a quantity of virus as is sometimes absorbed, should produce the effects that take place. 'It sometimes happens, for example, that a small chancre is healed after being open only a few days. The quantity of matter absorbed in such a case must be very small; yet the most unequivocal symptoms of universal disease often are the consequences of this absorption.' The difficulty of conceiving how great effects in the body can be produced by small quantities of any substance is so much alleviated by the effects of certain poisons, that it appears to us by no means sufficient ground to establish the theory of fermentation in the living system upon. And until the advocates for this process shall produce some direct proof or probability, we, for our parts, must agree with Mr. Hunter in rejecting the supposition. We think Mr. Moore ingenious, and successful in his attempt to refute Mr. Hunter's doctrine of a latent *disposition* to the venereal action in the different parts of the body. The reader will find the passage at p. 269; we recommend it to his attention; we should, indeed, willingly have extracted it, if this article had not been already extended to a length fully adequate to the importance

portance of the work reviewed. There remain but two heads, *expellorants** and *emetics*. The same character will apply to them as to those we have already noticed. They are sensible, and agreeably written rather than profound. The author every where expresses himself with modesty: he maintains throughout a tone of respect towards Dr. Cullen, corresponding to the motto he has chosen:

*Inventore minor; neque ego illi detrachere ausim
Hærentem capiti multa cum laude coronam.*

We have but one remark more to subjoin. We have been struck, and we think every reader will be struck, with passages written in a strain of urbanity and humour extremely similar to that which pervades the writings of Dr. Moore, the traveller, father of the author of the present production.

ART. IV. *The secret History of the Court and Reign of Charles the Second, by a Member of his Privy Council. To which are added, Introductory Sketches of the preceding Period from the Accession of James I. With Notes, and a Supplement continuing the Narrative, in a summary Manner, to the Revolution, by the Editor.* pp. 977. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. Bew. London, 1792.

THOUGH no period of British history has undergone more strict investigation than the reign of Charles the Second, it resisted, for near a century, the efforts of the most diligent inquirers, and even now some of its transactions still remain imperfectly elucidated. These effects, however, are not to be ascribed to any peculiar deficiency of public records, but to the secret motives, and the complication of views and interests, which actuated the politics of that time. From the title of the work before us we might be induced to expect additional information respecting this interesting subject; and information we undoubtedly obtain; but it is not of a nature that can throw

* Let us remark, however, that we hold his theory of catarrh to be totally false, and his practice pernicious. Catarrh, he says, is 'usually produced by a check given to the perspiration;' and 'the chief means of cure is continuing constantly in a warm chamber, and being warmly clothed.' Fortune preserve us from warm chambers in the incipient stage of catarrh! In small-pox it was usual formerly to pen patients up in warm chambers, and load them with blankets. The practice is equally rational in catarrh.

much light upon what requires most to be illuminated. The privy counsellors of Charles were frequently as little acquainted with their master's real intentions, as they were with those of their own coadjutors in the cabinet; and, amidst the disguise of sentiment which they generally assumed, it is more by accident than the sagacity of historians that their conduct has at length been laid open to the view of the public.

In some parts of the present work an identity of expression, and in others a great similarity to the Continuation of the Earl of Clarendon's Life, printed at Oxford, have induced the editor to prefix the following advertisement, which affords a transaction equal, in point of secret management, to any contained in the history:

'Some Letters to the People of England, published about forty years ago by the late Dr. Shebbeare, seemed to breathe such a spirit of liberty, and afforded so many proofs of wit, genius, and political information, as recommended him to the esteem of Mr. Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham. Shebbeare's name was at first concealed, for very obvious reasons; and Mr. Pitt did not contradict an insinuation thrown out in the House of Commons of his being the author of those letters himself, in order to divert from Shebbeare the storm of ministerial vengeance. He gave the Doctor a farther proof of his friendship and confidence by putting into his hands the manuscript of the following work, to prepare it for publication. But Shebbeare was in his heart a Tory; and having had another manuscript nearly on the subject, and more agreeable to his own sentiments, given him a little time after, he resolved to print the latter, and to prevent, if possible, the appearance of the former. The favourite manuscript had been long preserved in the old Earl of Dorset's family, and was supposed to be written by the Earl of Clarendon. It contained remarks on several occurrences during the Earl's administration, from the year 1660 till his disgrace in 1667. But Shebbeare, finding it in many parts very defective, made bold, before he returned the other work to Mr. Pitt, to select from it whatever he thought would easily coalesce with his tory performance; and filled up other chasms by the efforts of his own ingenuity. It was advertised with the Earl of Clarendon's name, and being unexpectedly claimed by one of his descendants, the Doctor chose rather to give up the eventual profits of the sale, than to discover his own artifice. The Oxford editors took Shebbeare's copy; and, without any other proof of its genuineness than his silence, they printed it as a Continuation of the Earl of Clarendon's Life. Hence the sameness and similarity of many passages in two productions so very different in every other respect.'

The history begins with the triumph of the royalists at the restoration, a retrospect of the past, and an anticipation of the future. The ingratitude of Charles has often been censured by historians; but the present writer endeavours to exculpate him from

from this charge. He affirms that the king's apparent neglect of his friends did not arise from any natural baseness of heart, but from a variety of foibles in his temper and conduct, joined to some unfavourable impressions made upon his mind immediately after his return from exile. His profusion, which was boundless in the pursuit of pleasure, and in gratifying some dissolute favourites, put it out of his power to reward persons of much greater desert; and when the claims of merit, and of long-deferred hope, were urged with importunity, though he felt, says our author, the justice of the sting, he never could endure, nor even pardon, the severity of remonstrance.

The ingratitude imputed to Charles receives farther explanation from the following extract :

‘ It may be further urged in extenuation of the king’s supposed ingratitude, that he took a surfeit of importunate claimants almost in the very first moments of his restoration. Upon his arrival at Canterbury, within three hours after his landing at Dover, he found many, who, from their own sufferings, or those of their fathers, and their constant adherence to the same principles, were justly looked upon as his most faithful friends; and who now waited with joy to kiss his hand. They were received by him with open arms, and with such flowing expressions of grace, that they easily assured themselves the accomplishment of all their desires from so affable and generous a prince. Some of them, that they might not lose the first opportunity, forced him to give them an immediate audience, in which they reckoned up the insupportable losses undergone by themselves, or their fathers, and some services of their own; and thereupon demanded the present grant or promise of particular offices, with such confidence, and such tedious discourses, that the king was extremely nauseated with their suits, though he knew not how to break from them. In this irksome situation he was detained for some hours; and did, in truth, from that time contract so great an antipathy to the persons of some of those troublesome applicants, though men of the first distinction, that he never afterwards received their addresses with his usual grace or patience; and rarely granted any thing they desired, though the matter was more reasonable, and the manner of asking much more modest.’

This author gives a satisfactory account of the omission of a public funeral of Charles the First, intended to have been celebrated after the restoration :

‘ The king,’ says he, ‘ had intended, that, some time before this state triumph on his own account, the body of his father should be removed from Windsor, and interred with all solemnity at Westminster, and that the court should continue in mourning till the coronation. But, after the strictest search, the corpse could not be found. There was, indeed, no mark which might lead to the discovery of the particular spot where it was buried. All the waincot, railing,

and partitions, in the church belonging to Windsor-Castle, had been broken down by the garrison there during the civil wars, and all the monuments had been defaced before the royal body was conveyed thither by Cromwell's order. Only four noblemen, with three servants each, were suffered to enter the castle to attend the interment, and could not well fix upon any object, in so desolate a place, to assist their future recollection. Besides, two of them, the Duke of Richmond, and the Marquis of Hertford, were now dead; and the survivors, the Earls of Southampton and Lindsey, with such of the servants who had been admitted with them, as were still living, went in vain to take a survey and examination of the place; they found themselves incapable of forming any judgment where the corpse lay. On being told by some of the workmen employed in the new pavement of the church, that the earth seemed to lie lighter in a particular part, they ordered it to be dug up, and searched all round, but to no purpose; and, upon their return, the king gave up all farther thought of inquiry.

This was the true reason why the proposed solemnity did not, and could not take place. But as this was not made public, the omission of such a testimony of reverence for the late king was ascribed to a variety of other causes. Some thought it was owing to his present majesty's want of filial piety; others fancied that it arose from the want of money to defray the expences of such a funeral with suitable pomp; and a few, who valued themselves for their political sagacity, said they were sure that his majesty's council had wisely dissuaded him from such a resolution, which might awaken old animosities, and give rise to much disorder and commotion.

As many readers might be disappointed at meeting with no anecdote of gallantry in the Secret History of the Court of Charles the Second, we shall present them with the author's account of Barbara Villiers; which places the king's behaviour towards the queen in a harsh and indelicate point of view:

Whatever testimonies of public joy were given on this occasion, yet in a short time there appeared not that serenity at court which was expected. There was a lady of youth and beauty, with whom the king had lived in great and notorious familiarity from the time of his coming into England; and who, a little before the queen's arrival, had been delivered of a son, whom the king owned. The scandal of such a connexion, though she was a married woman, had hitherto been the less in consideration of the king's being young, vigorous, and single; and upon a presumption, that when he should be married, he would contain himself within stricter bounds of decency and virtue. But it soon appeared that this favourite mistress not only retained, but greatly increased her former influence; and succeeded too well in completely alienating the king's affections from his queen, and filling him with prejudices against the virtuous counsels of his best friends.

When the queen came to Hampton-Court, she brought with her a formed resolution that she would never suffer the lady, who was so
much

much spoken of, to be in her presence. The king was determined on the very reverse; and, in a day or two, led the lady himself into her majesty's chamber, and presented her to the queen, who received her with the same grace as she had done the rest, there being many lords and other ladies at the same time there. But whether her majesty in the instant knew who she was, or upon recollection found it afterwards, she no sooner sat down in her chair than her colour changed, tears gushed out of her eyes, her nose bled, and she fainted, so that she was forthwith removed into another room, and all the company withdrew. Though these were the natural workings of flesh and blood in a young and jealous wife, the king was so enraged, that, from that moment, he treated the queen, even in public, with the utmost indifference and indignity, till her spirit being at length broken by such cruelty, and the firmness of her mind exhausted in useless struggles, she sunk into the opposite extreme of condescension and meanness. She not only admitted the lady to be of her bed-chamber, and used her kindly in private, but was familiar and merry with her in public; so that her majesty forfeited all the compassion before felt for the barbarity of the affronts she underwent; and the king's indifference was now changed into a settled contempt.'

Those who argue for the dignity of the House of Commons, must acknowledge, from the following extract, that it was little consulted at this period:

'In the course of almost three years, since this parliament was first assembled, many members of the house of Commons had died; and great pains were taken to have some of the king's menial servants chosen in their places. Hence it happened, that there was a very great number of men in all stations in the court, as well below stairs as above, who were become members of parliament; and there were very few of them who did not think themselves qualified to reform whatsoever was amiss in church or state, and to procure whatsoever supply the king would require. They who, from the lowness of their former rank in his service, never before had presumed to speak to him, now, by the privilege of parliament, resorted to him every day, and had as much conference with him as they desired. They even took the liberty to give their opinions and advice on the conduct of his affairs; and represented such and such men, whom they liked, as well affected to his service; and others, of much greater merit, but who paid them less respect, as ill affected, and as wanting duty to his majesty. Availing themselves of the king's weakness in too easily believing such insinuations, they brought the persons, of whom they had spoken favourably, and whose great recommendation consisted in a professed readiness to do any thing his majesty pleased to prescribe, to receive his thanks, as well as immediate directions from himself how to behave in the house, though many of them were in reality capable of no other instruction than to follow the example of some discreet man in whatsoever he should vote.'

We cannot dismiss this work without observing, that it is improperly termed a *Sécret History*; for we scarcely meet with any anecdote which merits the application of such a title. The narrative, however, appears to be faithful, and the editor has supplied it with many pertinent annotations, illustrative of the subject.

ART. V. *Sectionum Conicarum Libri Septem; accedit Tractatus de Sectionibus Conicis, et de Scriptoribus qui earum Doctrinam tradiderunt. Auctore Abramo Robertson, A. M. ex æde Christi.* pp. 398. 4to. 1l. 1s. sewed. Elmsley. London, 1793.

THE doctrine of conic sections is one of the most considerable, as well as oldest, branches of the mathematics; being of eminent use in many important concerns in life and in the sciences, and having been treated of, from the most early periods of the mathematics, with various improvements, down to the present day. The number of the conic sections is three; the ellipse, the hyperbola, and the parabola, which arise by cutting any cone, below the vertex, in certain degrees of obliquity, by a plane; the section being a parabola when the plane is parallel to one side of the cone; an ellipse when it cuts two opposite sides, both below the vertex; but an hyperbola when it cuts the two opposites, the one below the vertex, and the other produced above it. This important branch of the sublime geometry has been treated of by the early writers, from the time of Euclid, and before him, of which there remain several records; but the earliest regular elementary treatise now extant is that by the celebrated Apollonius, about two hundred years before Christ; the writings upon this science of all the authors before his time having been unfortunately lost, unless we except some parts of the writings of the celebrated Archimedes, about two hundred and forty years before Christ, which we still find in his *Quadrature of the Parabola*, the *Treatise on Spheroids and Conoids*, and elsewhere. And since that time almost all ages and nations have produced their treatises or improvements in this excellent branch of geometry.

After so many respectable writers who have gone before him, it is a very daring attempt in a young author to undertake to give another new elementary treatise on the same subject. To his honour, however, it must be acknowledged that Mr. Robertson has acquitted himself of his task in a very able manner, having produced a treatise at once copious, methodical, pure, and enriched with much new matter. And on this occasion, as well as the very elegant edition, in Greek and Latin, of the works

works of Archimedes, with notes, just delivered from the Clarendon press, we have reason to congratulate the ancient and honourable university of Oxford, as well as for the pleasing prospect of the improving state of the mathematical sciences there, as we are informed, and to which doubtless the encouraging example of our ingenious author contributes not a little.

The present treatise, which is honoured with the names of a very respectable and long list of subscribers, is in the Latin language, and delivered in the pure and classical style of the best geometrical method, imitating the genuine manner of Euclid, Archimedes, Apollonius, and Hamilton.

Mr. Robertson, after these last two authors, first derives the principal properties of the sections from the solid or cone itself, independent of any arbitrary description in plane; and then from these he derives the other, or secondary properties, in a clear and elegant manner. The work is divided into seven books, the titles and contents of which are as follow:

‘ LIBER PRIMUS.

‘ Ad vicesimam usque propositionem de Cono agitur. Postea exhibentur Sectiones in plano positæ, et per rectas lineas superficiem Conicam contingentes, quæ revera etiam sectionum ipsarum locus est, affectiones earum maxime generales demonstrantur.

‘ LIBER SECUNDUS.

‘ Tractantur ea quæ ad Parabolam pertinent. Agitur de rectis quæ Parabolam contingunt vel secant; de diametris, earum ordinatis et parametris; et de rectis a curvâ ad focus et directricem ductis. Ad finem libri hujusce explicantur ea quæ ad Parabolæ Quadraturam spectant.

‘ LIBER TERTIUS.

‘ Ostenditur quomodo fiat in Cono sectio subcontraria, et sectionem omnem Conum ambientem, neque basi coni parallelam neque subcontrariam, Ellipse esse. Deinde agitur de Ellipseos centro, diametris, earum ordinatis et parametris; de rectis quæ ad focos ductæ sunt, contingentibus focalibus, et axium segmentis inter focos et sectionem; et postremo de ratione inter Ellipse et circulum qui circa eam describitur.

‘ LIBER QUARTUS.

‘ Demonstrantur ea quæ ad Hyperbolam et Hyperbolas oppositas spectant—primo quæ ejusdem generis sunt cum iis quæ in libro secundo et tertio exposita sunt, quatenus affectiones illas, quæ tribus sectionibus conveniunt—postea quæ de asymptotis Hyperbolæ, et de Hyperbolis iis quæ conjugatæ dicuntur, omnino ediscenda sunt. Denique ratio exponitur quam habent ad se invicem segmenta Hyperbolica, uti etiam affinitas quæ inter ea est, et numerorum logarithmos.

LIBER QUINTUS.

‘ In libro quinto quædam ex Sectionum affectionibus primariis, in libris præcedentibus separatim demonstratæ, simul enunciantur, idcirco scilicet, ut facilius eas et conjunctim postea citare detur. Ellipseos et Hyperbolæ directrices definiuntur, et quæ ad illas pertinent, fusius explicantur. Agitur copiosius de rectis lineis quæ sectiones contingunt aut secant, et de iis, quarum affectiones ex comparatione earum cum rectis lineis per focos ductis innotescunt. Sequuntur propositiones nonnullæ de axibus et de rationibus inter eos et diametros conjugatas, et aliæ quæ ad parallelogramma, spectant circa Ellipsim vel Hyperbolas conjugatas descripta.

LIBER SEXTUS.

‘ Traduntur ea, quæ perutilia licet et cognitu omnino necessaria inter priorum Librorum propositiones non ita commode tractare licuit. Quæ magis subtilia sunt de Hyperbolæ asymptotis demonstrantur, ut et alia de affinitate inter rectas asymptotis Hyperbolæ parallelas et diametros Parabolæ, et de Parabolis asymptoticis. Adji- ciuntur nonnulla de trapeziis inscriptis sectioni alicui vel Hyperbolis oppositis, et de sectionibus quæ se invicem secant vel contingunt.

LIBER SEPTIMUS.

‘ De sectionibus similibus agitur, de rectis quæ sectiones secant vel contingunt et harmonice dividuntur, de circulis sectiones vel Hyperbolas oppositas contingentibus, et de circulis qui eandem curvaturam cum sectionibus habent. Ostenditur quomodo sectiones describi possint, quæ per puncta data transeant, et rectas positione datas contingant. Postremo exponitur methodus inveniendi duas medias proportionales inter duas rectas lineas datas, et quibus artificiis datum angulum trifariam secare licet.’

By which arrangement of the matter, in these seven books, the science is delivered in a very regular and profitable manner.

After the whole elementary theory of the conic sections is thus discussed, in these seven books, there is added by our author an absolutely new work, being an historical account of the writings and improvements in this branch of the mathematics, under this title; *De Sectionibus Conicis, et de Scriptoribus qui earum Doctrinam tradiderant*. This history is distributed into three chapters, viz. CAP. I. *De Sectionum Conicarum Notitia ante Apollonium*. CAP. II. *De Methodis, quibus de Sectionibus Conicis Scriptores, primarias earum affectiones indagati sunt*. CAP. III. *De Sectionum Conicarum doctrinæ incrementis, præcipue de iis quæ ex hac parte a recentioribus enodata sunt*.

In the first of these, viz. of notices concerning the conic sections before Apollonius, the author has collected together whatever has been delivered down to us by the ancients, which however, beside the writings of Archimedes, amounts to no more than notices that certain authors among the most ancient had

had written treatises upon this part of geometry. Among these, we notice Euclid himself, who, according to Pappus, wrote four books of conic sections, which were said to be augmented by Apollonius, who also added four more to them, thereby making the eight books of this author. Aristæus, according to the same authority, wrote five books on the same elements. Conon of Samos, it is also said, wrote upon the same. Archimedes too, according to Heraclius, wrote a treatise, or first published one, on the elements of conic sections. Of this treatise, however, there is no mention in the works that are extant of this eminent author. But that he was very well skilled in this branch, is abundantly manifest from many parts of those very works, in several parts of which he occasionally lays down some of the more curious and remarkable properties of them. It is next remarked, that it is probable the first who investigated the affections or properties of the conic sections was Menechurus, the disciple of Eudoxus, soon after the time of Plato, upon which he must have fallen in the resolution of certain problems which could not be resolved by the help of right lines and circles only. The most celebrated of these problems are these two, viz. the trisection of an angle, and the inserting of two mean proportionals between two given lines, in the determination of which Menechurus particularly applied himself, and to which he gave two solutions, the one by means of two parabolas, and the other by a parabola and hyperbola. Beside these, many others, it is supposed, among the ancients, treated on the same subject.

Mr. Robertson then adverts to the state, as to advance or improvement, in which the conic sections were before the time of Apollonius, which he deduces chiefly from the writings of Archimedes. He here shews that most of the great general properties were then known, even those concerning the proportionality of the rectangles under the segments of parallel secants, or the squares of their parallel tangents; as also the affections of similar sections; together with the quadratures of them, their centres of gravity, and the measures of the conoids or spheroids generated by the revolution of them about their axes. He finally concludes this chapter with stating the manner in which the ancients, before the time of Apollonius, consider the cone, or rather cones, to be cut, in deriving the sections. These they derived from right cones only, that is, cones generated by a right-angled triangle revolved about the perpendicular, or cones having their axes at right angles to their base. In all the sections, the cutting plane always entered the cone in a direction perpendicular to the side of it. And to derive, in this way, the three several sections, they used as many different sorts of cones :

for

for a parabola they used a right-angled cone, that is, having the angle at the vertex, which is formed there by two opposite sides, or the angle at the vertex of a section through the axis, a right angle; by which means it is evident that the cutting plane will be parallel to the other, or opposite side of the cone: and for an ellipse they used an acute-angled cone, or one whose vertical angle is acute; in which case it would cut also the other side of the cone below the vertex: but for the hyperbola they used an obtuse cone, or one that has its vertical angle obtuse; in which case the plane would cut the other side of the cone produced above the vertex, instead of below it. And accordingly the names they gave to these sections were sections of a right-angled, or acute-angled, or obtuse-angled cone; and not parabola, ellipse, and hyperbola, which were names given them by Apollonius, who derives all these sections from any one and the same cone, viz. by cutting the cone in a direction either parallel to the opposite side, or making an acute or an obtuse angle with it.

Mr. Robertson then enters upon his second chapter, treating of the methods in which the writers on conic sections have derived their primary affections or properties. These he divides into two methods, viz. that in which they are derived from the solid cone itself, and the other which considers the curves as described upon a plane. And first of those who derived them in the former way, or from the cone itself. The first of these is Apollonius, who wrote about forty years after Archimedes, or about two hundred years before Christ. This work is in eight books, of the contents of which Mr. Robertson here gives a particular description. This author introduced the method of cutting all the sections from any one and the same cone, either right or oblique, as well as the names of the three sections in present use, the parabola, ellipse, and hyperbola, as was remarked above; also the parameter, or *latus rectum*, the *latus transversum*, or transverse axis, the opposite hyperbolic sections, the second diameter, and the centre, as also the asymptotes. Of the ancients who followed Apollonius in this line, or commented upon him, Mr. Robertson enumerates Serenis, Hypatia the daughter of Theon, Pappus, and Eutocius. After these, which was but a very few centuries after Christ, this as well as the other sciences were in a manner lost, being kept from perishing among the Arabians and Moors, who restored them again to Europe about the tenth century of Christ, after which we begin to see gradual advances in them by the European nations. Mention is here made of a treatise by John Werner, of Nuremberg, in 22 books, in the year 1522; and of one by Lovani, in 1548, '*De Sectione Conica Orthogona, quæ parabola dicitur;* deque

deque Speculo Ustorio, Libelli duo, haecenus desiderati: Restituti ab Antonio Gogava Graviensi.' The next author here mentioned is Mydorgius, who published, at Paris in 1631, two books on conic sections, and again in 1641 four books; though it is said he wrote eight books in all: this is a very good work. Next, de la Hire's treatise, in 1673, again in 1679, and thirdly in 1685, in nine books. Then the treatise of James Milnes, at Oxford, first in 1702, again in 1712, and thirdly in 1723. This is chiefly an abridgment of de la Hire's treatise. Mr. Robertson next commends the elegant treatise of Hamilton, published in 1758, who he observes, however, followed the method of Guarinus in 1671; whose propositions were also given by William Jones, in his *Synopsis Palmariorum Matheseos*, in 1706.

Of the writers who treated the conic sections in the other way, or as curves described by mechanical motion on a plane, Mr. Robertson first reckons the celebrated Dr. John Wallis, whose treatise was published at Oxford in 1655. It is here shewn that Wallis expressed these curves by algebraic equations, denoting their chief property; thus, if p denote any ordinate, d its corresponding absciss, l the latus rectum, and t the whole diameter; then, in the parabola it will be $p^2 = dl$, in the ellipse

$$p^2 = dl - \frac{l}{t} d^2, \text{ and in the hyperbola } p^2 = dl + \frac{l}{t} d^2. \text{ Wallis}$$

first treated these curves in the analytical method. He next adverts to the treatise by De Chales, in his *Cursus Mathematicus*, in 1674; who, after the manner of Wallis, constructs or defines his curves on a plane, from the relation between the abscisses of the diameter and their corresponding ordinates; but he demonstrates their properties in the geometrical manner. Lastly, to John de Witt, whose *Elementa Linearum Curvarum* was published by Schooten in 1659.

Mr. Robertson then finally enters upon his third and last chapter, concerning the various improvements that have been made in the conic sections, especially by the moderns. And here again he begins with Apollonius. The eight books are mentioned by Pappus. Among the oriental manuscripts of the celebrated Golius was found one in Arabic, containing seven of these books; and a similar copy of the same books was discovered at Florence by Borelli, a Latin version of which was published in 1661 by Abraham Ecchellenfis, an Arabian. The eighth book was never found; but it was restored by Halley, from the lemmas relating to it that were given by Pappus in his collections.

As to the circumstances and properties concerned in the gradual improvement of this science, Mr. Robertson distinguishes them

them into such as relate to the *axes*, the *foci*, the *asymptotes*, *similar sections*, the *quadrature* of the spaces, *osculatory circles*, and the *description of the curves upon planes*.

As to the properties relating to the *axes*, he shews that these were all laid down by Apollonius, being the same with those for every pair of conjugate diameters.

As to the *foci*, this is a more modern term. Mr. Robertson shews, however, that Apollonius first treated of the chief properties relating to lines drawn to the foci of ellipses and hyperbolas, but under another name; for he calls those points, *puncta ex applicatione facta*. As to the focus of a parabola, it is uncertain who first treated of it, or at what time. Mr. Robertson finds the first mention of it in *Lovani*, about 1548, in his *Speculo Ustorio*, both by name and its properties; though he thinks it must have been found out and treated of before by the optical writers. Mydorgius treated pretty fully of the properties of the focus, or, as he calls it, the *umbilicus*, and especially in the parabola.—Gregory St. Vincent also, in 1647, treated of the foci of the ellipse and parabola, but omitted the hyperbola, which is rather extraordinary. He treated also of the property of the *directrix* in the parabola.—Mr. Robertson makes also honourable mention concerning the foci and directrices, and their properties, of the eminent authors De la Hire, Hamilton, and Emerson.

Mr. Robertson then proceeds to the *asymptotes*; the chief properties of which he finds first mentioned by Menechurus; but the first demonstrations of them that are extant, are by Apollonius, viz. in the first 24 propositions of the second book.—Mydorgius and Gregory St. Vincent derive the properties of the asymptotes from the cone. The latter of these also mentions the parabolic parallels; and, first of any, the analogy between the hyperbolic sectors, bounded by the asymptotes, and the logarithms of numbers. Properties of the hyperbolic asymptotes and parabolic parallels are also treated of by Hamilton.

The properties of *similar sections* were known to Archimedes, and to others before him; and were very well treated of by Apollonius, and more recently by l'Hospital.

The *quadrature* of the sections was treated of by the ancients, and especially by Archimedes, who accurately squared the parabola, and still more fully by Gregory St. Vincent, in his *Opus Geometricum Quadraturæ Circuli et Sectionum Coni*, 1647. Archimedes, beside the perfect quadrature of the parabola, shewed the relation between the ellipse and a circle described upon its transverse axis; also that the circle is equal to a right-angled triangle having the radius for its perpendicular, and

and the circumference for its base; which reduced its quadrature to the ratio between the diameter and circumference; and, finally, he shewed that this ratio is between that of 1 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ and 1 to $3\frac{1}{2}$.—For the quadrature of the hyperbola, Viscount Broancker first gave an approximation by an infinite converging series, in 1656. Soon after Mercator computed the same by means of the logarithms, and gave an approximation, by a series, for the space between the curve and its asymptotes; of which also James Gregory presently gave a geometrical demonstration. But the most complete approximation was given by Newton, in his general methods of quadrature by means of fluxions.

As to the *osculatory circle*, and the *radius of curvature*, some properties of them were treated of by Apollonius, though not by name, viz. where he treats of the greatest and least lines that can be drawn to the curve from a given point taken in the axis; for if the point be taken at the distance of half the parameter from the vertex, the circle described with that radius will osculate the curve at the vertex. And in like manner, if an osculatory circle be described to the vertex of any diameter whatever, it will cut off from that diameter a segment equal to its parameter. And the same things were demonstrated by Viviani in his work, ‘De Maximis et Minimis Geometrica Divisione in quantum Conicorum Apollonii Pergæi adhuc desideratum.’ In the Leipzig Acts of 1686 Leibnitz published his ‘Meditatio nova de natura anguli *contactus et osculi*, horumque usu in practicâ Mathesi, ad figuras faciliores succedaneas difficilioribus substituendas;’ in which paper he first calls that circle by its name. The properties of it were also treated in the Leipzig Acts of 1692, in De Moivre’s *Miscellanea Analytica*, and in Newton’s *Geometria Analytica*. Mr. Robertson then observes that the first book of the conic sections in which he finds the subject of such circles treated, is that of Milnes, the properties of which are demonstrated by means of evanescent quantities. And Trevigar afterwards gave the same as new in his *Conic Sections*, 1731. But they were demonstrated geometrically by Dr. Robert Simson, in his treatise on the same subject.

As to the *mechanical description of the sections on a plane*, Mr. Robertson shews that it must have been known to the ancients. It appears, by what remains of Menechmus on the finding of two mean proportionals, that the mechanical description of the parabola and hyperbola was effected by what was called the *Circinum Isidori*. Aquilonius gives a description of the construction of the *Circini Elliptici* in his *Optics*, in 1613; which is drawn from the same property as that of the instrument, for
the

the same purpose, vulgarly known by the name of the *trammels*. Mydorgius delivered many things concerning the description of the sections, by means of points given in position. The organical description was very copiously laid down by Schooten. Newton also performed the same thing by other new methods; who also delivered curious problems concerning the description of the sections through given points, and to touch certain right lines given in position. And the properties upon which they depend, are demonstrated in some of the propositions of the 7th book of the work now before us. As to the description of the ellipse, for common use, we have a good and easy practical method by a continued motion; but the same thing for the parabola and hyperbola is still a desideratum, the description of these, by a continued motion, being not well adapted to common use.

In the conclusion of this work, which must be considered as a valuable addition to the stock of genuine mathematical learning, we could have wished to have seen a list of all the publications on the subject of the conic sections arranged in chronological order, with the dates, sizes, and other peculiar circumstances of each work.

ART. VI. *Letters to Dr. Priestley; containing Proofs of the sole, supreme, and exclusive Divinity of Jesus Christ, whom the Scriptures declare to be the only God of Heaven and Earth; and of the divine Mission of Emanuel Swedenborg. Being a Defence of the New Church, signified by the New Jerusalem in the Apocalypse. By Robert Hindmarsh. pp. 395. 8vo. 5s. boards. Hindmarsh. London, 1792.*

OUR readers may almost decide upon the general merits of this singular production, in the line of theology, by the title-page itself. To determine, however, their judgment, we need only cite a few passages. The author, to prove the divine mission of Swedenborg, presents us with the following curious particulars:

‘ After the decease of the Count de Marteville, certain persons came to demand a debt of his widow, of a considerable sum of money, that they said was due to them by her deceased husband. This she knew was not a just one, because it had been paid during his life-time; yet could not tell where the acquittance or receipt was put. In her trouble she applied to Mr. Swedenborg; and understanding that he had the privilege of conversing with the deceased, requested that (if possible) he would ask her late husband where the acquittance was. On the next day Mr. Swedenborg informed her, that he had
seen

seen and spoken to her deceased husband, who told him where he had put the acquittance, and that she would find it in the particular place he described. It was accordingly found in the same place. The Queen of Sweden confirmed the truth of this relation. '—' On arriving at Gottenburg from London, Swedenborg was told that his house had been destroyed by the flames, in the great fire that burnt almost all the south suburb of Stockholm, in 1759. 'No,' answered Mr. Swedenborg, 'my house is not burnt—the fire only reached to such and such a part.' What he said was true; and the thing was then of so recent a nature, that he could have had no particular account of it, either by letter or any person; for it was about three days before the arrival of the post.'

But enough—to shew the complexion of the book. Indeed, in some parts, there is an air of mysteriousness not quite so pleasant as the above. These letters, however, are too strongly characterised by ignorance, credulity, and superstition to merit any further attention.

ART. VII. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity.* Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Volume X. pp. 502. 4to. 1l. 1s. White. London, 1792.

[Continued.]

XXVI. [XXV.] *Observations on a Charter in Mr. Asle's Library, which is indorsed, in a Hand co-eval with it, 'Hæc est Carta Regis Eadgari, de institutione Abbatie Eliensis, et duplicatus.'* [By Mr. Asle himself, we suppose.]

'THIS charter of King Edgar—now is, and ever since that time hath been, the ground of that temporal power for so many ages enjoyed by the church of Ely, some remains of which are to this day vested in the bishop.' For this very reason, perhaps, 'many circumstances,' in the opinion of our author, 'render its authenticity suspicious.' These circumstances, however, are only petty and problematical; that it has a monogram—in read ink, which is significant 'of Alpha and Omega, [and] is not to be found in genuine Saxon characters,' where the standard itself is first to be tried, and then others may be tried by it; that it 'afterwards mentions some of St. Ethelreda's miracles,' says, 'her body then remained incorruptible,' though 'she had been dead near three centuries,' and 'also styles her a virgin, although she had been twice married,' when the foundation of both the others, her remaining under marriage 'in a state of virginity,' is owned to be equally 'reported in the

‘ the legend of her life;’ and that, finally, the charter is said to be granted ‘ *pro animabus patrum meorum regum antiquorum,*’ when ‘ I never found such an expression in a genuine Saxon charter.’ These arguments are surely of slight moment, to invalidate the authenticity of a charter upon which so much is said to depend. They are even overborne by facts, that our author unwarily mentions himself. ‘ The privileges granted by this charter,’ he says, ‘ were allowed before Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, justice of England, in a great court held at Rentford, April 2, 1080—; this instrument is inrolled in the charter-roll of the 12th of King Edward, n. 42, and the franchises thereby granted were several times allowed before the Justices in Eyre, viz. 22 Edw. I, 8 Edw. II, 15, 18 Edw. III, and the privileges were confirmed by Richard II. in the first year of his reign.’ And, what is very remarkable, our author objects to this being ‘ a genuine Saxon charter,’ yet actually *makes it such a charter himself*; saying afterwards, that ‘ the Saxon characters are similar to those of the time of King Edward the Confessor;’ and concluding, ‘ from the purity of the Saxon characters,—that it is either an ancient copy, or that it was forged by the monks in the reign of King Edward the Confessor.’ So weakly is the dissertation conducted! Yet it is conducted still more weakly. For if this is ‘ an ancient copy’ of an original charter, and appears to be so ‘ from the purity of the Saxon characters;’ then the ‘ many circumstances,’ which ‘ render its authenticity suspicious,’ are all set aside, and the writer is at war with himself. He mentions, however, one circumstance, which, though he has thus set aside, we must dwell upon, as it seemingly carries a decisive force. ‘ There is an anachronism in its date, which invalidates its authenticity. It is dated in the year 970, in the 13th year of King Edgar’s reign. This king began to reign in 959, and the 13th year of his reign must have been A. D. 972, and not 970. We must therefore either conclude, that this charter is spurious, or that the king and his officers were ignorant of the year of his reign.’ Yet this is not founded in chronology. No author is quoted for the grand fact, the year of Edgar’s commencing reign. We will quote. The Saxon Chronicle is the grand register for dates, in the Saxon period of our history; and, upon any variation between it and the other histories, its authority must always preponderate. Now this tells us, that ‘ An. DCCCCLVI’ Edgar took the sovereignty of Mercia, and ‘ An. DCCCCLVII,’ not 959, but 957, on the calends of October, Edgar took the sovereignty of West Saxony as well as Mercia. On this scale of chronology then, the ‘ anachronism’ vanishes into air; nor are ‘ the king and his officers’ at all ‘ ignorant of the year of his reign.’ One history

history coinciding with the charter, would solve the anachronism at once: and such a history as this coinciding, shews the anachronism to be only true chronology. We have dwelt the longer upon this article, in order to detect the weak reasoning and expose the false history in it; because we see a wild spirit of jealousy concerning monkish charters creeping in among scholars; and because we find by experience from it, that

Trifles light as air
Are to the jealous confirmations strong
As proofs of holy writ.

XXVII. [XXVI.] *Observations on a Charter of King Eadgar.*
By Thomas Asple, Esq, F. A. S.

This is a charter of the same year, but to a different monastery, that of Westminster. Its authenticity, however, is attacked from the same ground. Even the very anachronism before, is produced again. To this are added many others. We believe they might all be as easily answered, as the other has been. But we are writing a Review, not a Dissertation; and have already said enough to put Mr. Asple upon examining his dates again, and going higher for them, than to 'Godwin, Le Neve, and others.'

XXVIII. [XXVII.] *Inventory of Crown Jewels, 3 Edw. III.*
From a Record in the Exchequer. Communicated by Crauen Ord, Esq. F. A. S.

XXIX. [XXVIII.] *Remarks on the Stalls near the Communion Table in Maidstone Church; with an Inquiry into the Place of Burial of Archbishop Courtnay.* By the Rev. Samuel Denne, F. A. S.

XXX. [XXIX.] *Further Remarks on Stone Seats in the Chancels of Churches, Cathedrals, Collegiate, and Parochial.* By the Rev. Samuel Denne, F. A. S.

These two dissertations, extending through a length of no less than 64 pages, we have not been able to read with any attention; they are so dull, so tedious, and so unimproving.

XXXI. [XXX.] *Account of Antiquities discovered at Bath 1790.* By Sir Henry Charles Englefield, Bart. F. R. A. S.

We are now tempted to say, that we come with peculiar pleasure to this dissertation,

Escap'd the Stygian pool, though long detain'd
In that obscure sojourn.

'The remains in question were brought to light, by digging
'the foundation of a new pump-room and baths, between the

‘ present pump-room and Stall-Street. The ground opened consisted almost entirely of the fragments of ruined buildings, and amongst these were the ornamented stones, now preserved for the inspection of the curious. They are in number between fifty and sixty, and consist of parts of an ornamented cornice, a Corinthian capital; several pieces of the shaft of a column or columns, of a diameter answering to the capital; a base of the same order; pieces of pilastres, probably belonging to the same building with the columns; the greater part of the stones which formed the tympanum of the pediment, and which were adorned with sculpture; parts of an inscription, which probably ran along the front wall of the building, on a frieze, in very sharp, well-formed letters, much better than those which appear in inscriptions commonly found in Britain—; and pieces of bas-relief, which seem to have ornamented the walls of it.—At about twelve feet below the level of the present street, the workmen discovered a pavement of large stones, with steps fronting the east. Of this pavement enough was not laid open, to discover the form or size of the building to which it belonged. It appeared to extend under Stall-Street.’ The former ‘probably was a temple of the Corinthian order, dedicated to the deities who presided over the springs of Bath.’ Sir Henry then delineates the parts in union, upon four plates; which are so well drawn and so well engraved, as to give us rather too high an idea of the elegance of the building; but which, from the neglect of the director, we suppose, and from paging the plates 313, 315, and 317, instead of 327, 329, and 331, are thrown into the body of Mr. Denne’s dissertations. But Sir Henry describes as he delineates, corrects the pencil and the graver with his pen, and lowers our idea. ‘Mr. Baldwin, the architect to the city of Bath,’ he adds, ‘—I have since been informed, —means to publish an exact account of these discoveries, and what farther intended excavations may bring to light.’

XXXII. [XXXI.] *Conjectures with Remarks on some of the Portraits in the Window in Brereton Church. By the Rev. Samuel Denne, F. A. S.*

Mr. Denne seems to be rising a second Mr. Pegge, indefatigable, dull, and long-winded. In this new specimen of his manner, he supposes the central figure below to be—whom dost thou think, gentle reader?—no less than Henry the Second himself; though there is a scroll between the legs of it, expressly declaring it to be the martyr Thomas. The incredulity of antiquarianism is often as ridiculous, as the credulity. In this article we have both united together; incredulity to a positive

positive and authoritative evidence, and credulity in some flimsy reasons of his own. The two side-figures above, who are certainly saints from the glory round their heads, he supposes to be an abbat of Boxley, and a prior of Dover, who were never faunted; and mistakes the Bible in their hand for a casket.

XXXIII. [XXXII.] *Account of some sepulchral Antiquities discovered at Lincoln.* By John Pownall, Esq. F. A. S.

This with a plate ' exhibits an ancient *sepulture*, discovered ' and dug up about three or four feet below the surface of an ' open field half a mile due east of the east gate of the ancient ' *Lindum*. That field having been broken up from time to ' time, in several parts of it, to dig for stone; a variety of stone ' coffins of various shapes have at different times been disco- ' vered, in the looser ground that covers the solid rock. From ' this circumstance there is reason to believe, that it was the ' common burying-ground, not only of the Romans belonging ' to that great *municipium*, Mr. Pownall should have said *colony*, ' Lincoln never rising to the dignity of a *municipium*, and indeed ' the very name of Lincoln being only *Lindum Colonia*; ' but of ' succeeding generations for many ages after—. The singular ' *sepulture* here described is undoubtedly Roman—. This *sepul- ' ture* is now—in the possession of the Rev. Dr. Gordon, Præ- ' centor of Lincoln.' The Frenchified use of the word *sepul- ' ture* here, is very fantastical in Mr. Pownall. It is the more ' so, because he afterwards uses the word in its English accepta- ' tion, speaking ' of a similar mode of *sepulture*.' Mr. Pownall, ' like Mr. Gibbon, is fond of these violations of English prop- ' erty; and yet appears, like him, to be fond of them only from ' affectation, because he recurs to the natural line of expression ' afterwards.

XXXIV. [XXXIII.] *An Account of the River of Orwell, or Orewell, in the County of Suffolk, and of the Town and Harbour of that Name, by Mr. Myers in 1762.*

' All or most of the rivers in the world, have had their ori- ' ginal name from some word, which, in the proper dialect of ' the country, signified water, or some distinct property or qua- ' lity belonging thereto, or, &c. This is all taken, and all ' that immediately follows it, from the famous Lhuyd's *Adversaria*, ' published at the end of Baxter's *Glossarium Antiquitatum Bri- ' tannicarum*, p. 263—268; and without any acknowledgment ' of the original proprietor. Mr. Myers then applies his stolen ' erudition, thus wretchedly: ' so the Saxons might give it the ' name of Morwille, or Morwell, and afterwards that of Or- ' well;'

‘well;’ or ‘this, being a large and spacious harbour, might thence be called Mordavor Morav, and afterwards by the Saxons Morewe, or Morwell, and thence Orwell.’ Such are the dull *freaks* of etymology, in the hands of ignorance! He soon thinks, however, without knowing he is now varying from himself, that the real name of the river was Arrow. He then ‘plunders Gibson as he has plundered Lhuyd before, and equally without acknowledgment; but takes what he says, from Gibson’s ‘*Nominum Locorum Explicatum*,’ p. 13, at the end of his Saxon Chronicle. ‘Now that there once was in those parts such a town as Orwell, we may gather from the following circumstances: first, history informs us, that the Danes, in their ravaging of our coasts, went out of the river Thames into *Arpan* (*into Arwan*), or, as it is otherwise expressed, to *Arpan* (*to Arwan*)—; whence we conjecture, that they came into the haven of Orwell, and plundered the town of that name.’ This is taken equally from Gibson, but applied most strangely by himself. The substitution of *to* for *into*, which Mr. Myers has exalted into a different reading of the manuscripts, is merely a conjectural reading of Gibson’s, in order to make Arwan into Waran, and carry the Danes up to Ware. Thus is Mr. Myers’s town of Arwan demolished in a moment! But Mr. Myers with a singular tenaciousness preserves both readings, wafts the Danes *into* the harbour, and carries them *to* the town. This, he thinks, ‘happened, in all probability, about the year 852;’ when the Saxon Chronicle states it expressly in 1016. *Quorsum hæc portenta literarum?* Mr. Myers, however, coming afterwards to leave his learning and to tell his observations, speaks judiciously and knowingly.

XXXV. [XXXIV.] *Observations on the Introduction of Arabic Numerals into England. By the Rev. Mr. North of Coddicote, F. A. S. [Written in 1748, copied fair in 1766.]*

This is an essay, replete equally with learning, with judgment, with originality. We wish we could produce some passages from it. But we can only give a short abstract. Though Professor Ward deduces our numerals from Boethius, yet in *Boethii Arithmetica*, a manuscript which Mr. North has lately examined at Bennet College, Cambridge, supposed to be not less than 1000 years old, are only Roman numerals throughout the whole. In *Johannis Damasceni Tractatus de Sphæra*, King’s Library, 5 C. iv. 10. no Arabic cyphers or characters are to be found; though Damascenus died about A. D. 754. In *Alperici artis calculatoria rudimenta*, A. D. 810, in Bib. Reg. 13 A. XI. nothing like these cyphers is to be found. As to Gerbertus,

Gerbertus, Archbishop of Rheims, and afterwards Pope by the name of Sylvester the Second, who, as Dr. Wallis has attempted to prove, had before the year 1000 learned the art of arithmetic as now practised with only nine characters, from the Saracens in Spain; Mr. North examines a manuscript written in or near the time, of an epistle of Adelbold to Gerbert 'de questione 'diametri,' and of an epistle of Gerbert to Adelbold, at Cambridge; and finds them both using constantly the Roman numerals. As to the Helmdon and Widial dates, *that* supposed by Wallis to be 1133, and by Ward 1233, and *this* 1016; Mr. North cannot credit the reading of either, because no use of such cyphers occurs in any book for many years after they are thus supposed to have been inscribed familiarly upon a chimney. He finds in Bennet College library, before a table of eclipses from the year 1330 to 1348, an account of numbers, and the methods of expressing them; in which the first column is Roman numerals, and the second our present numerals; and from which it appears, that the use of the present was then so little known, as to want explanation. He finally attributes our knowledge of them to Robert Grossthead, Bishop of Lincoln, who sent John Basingstoke, Archdeacon of Leicester, to Athens in quest of a Greek manuscript, and with whom was imported from Greece the use of these numerals, between 1235 and 1240. 'Hic magister Joannes,' says the Continuation of M. Paris's History under the year 1251, '*figuras Græcorum numerales, et earum notitiam et significationes, in Angliam portavit, et familiaribus suis declaravit; per quas figuras etiam literæ representantur.*' After this period Mr. North finds them used, not by M. Paris himself, because his own manuscript in the King's Library has the dates all in Roman letters, but by Joannes de Sacro Bosco, by Prefacius Judæus, whose tables, written in 1308, are in the King's Library, and by Roger Bacon.

[To be concluded in our next.]

ART. VIII. *Sermons by the late Rev. John Drysdale, D. D. F. R. S. Edin. one of the Ministers of Edinburgh, one of his Majesty's Chaplains, and Principal Clerk to the Church of Scotland. To which is prefixed an Account of the Author's Life and Character, by Andrew Dalzell, M. A. F. R. S. Edin. Professor of Greek, and Secretary and Librarian in the University of Edinburgh; and Principal Clerk to the Church of Scotland.* pp. 931. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. Cadell, London, 1793.

It is doubtless somewhat singular and paradoxical, that, in an age like the present, of pleasure, frivolity, and dissipation, there should be a very general taste for well composed sermons.

The very word sermon, twenty or thirty years ago, carried in it something dull and disgusting to fashionable readers of books. At present, there is not a more popular, any more than a more proper title for a moral and practical discourse. In the present age a very general taste prevails for fine writing. And no doubt, to a cultivated and critical eye, there is as much beauty in well-conceived and justly-arranged composition, neither too naked and dry, nor overloaded with ornament, as there is in the symmetry and strength of a beautiful piece of architecture, or in the propriety and grace of a fine picture or statue.

There is no subject on which genius has a fuller or nobler field than that of the preacher, who rouses mankind to a sense and an attention to the CHIEF GOOD, and expatiates freely on all that is most noble and interesting, whether in this life or that which is to come. We have accordingly many excellent compositions of this kind, both in French and English, from the times of Lewis XIV. when the pulpit eloquence of France, like the reasoning of Paul before Felix, sometimes made the court to tremble, to the present, when we have sermons of all the different kinds of excellence in composition.

The discourses before us are productions of a superior mind, happily uniting and blending different powers and graces. They possess dignity, force, and animation, and at the same time an elegant simplicity. The sentiments are natural and affecting; and the style deserves great praise, as exhibiting both purity and simplicity very different from that pompous and ostentatious brilliancy which impresses on young readers, and corrupts the public taste. In short, they well deserve the character that is given of them by the Rev. Mr. Moodie, minister of St. Andrew's church, Edinburgh, in a postscript subjoined to the life of the author.

Among other excellencies, Mr. Moodie particularly admires that unity of design which appears in every sermon. The author, seizing on that view of his subject which promises to lead to the most useful discussion, carries the reader along with him, in a regular and uninterrupted stream of argument, from the beginning to the end of the discourse. He never loses sight of the great end of preaching. While he exhibits the most rational views of the doctrines of religion, he is always careful to illustrate and enforce their practical influence. He discovers uncommon reach and acuteness of judgment in ascertaining the nature and the limits of our several duties, in distinguishing genuine virtue from what has only the appearance of it, and in detecting vice under the various forms which it assumes. His reasoning is always persuasive and animated, fitted at once to inform the understanding, and to warm

‘warm the heart. When he addresses himself to the passions, his style becomes frequently abrupt and vehement; and his mind, full of the importance of his subject, pours itself forth in soliloquy, apostrophe, and the other higher figures of speech, which are never introduced in order to excite surprise, but in which the reader will always find himself prepared to join.—In short, these sermons are admirably calculated to inspire the mind with high sentiments of piety to God, trust in providence, independence on the world, admiration of virtue, steady and resolute attachment to duty, and contempt of every thing that is base and dishonourable.’—In some of these sermons, the author reaches to considerable perfection in pulpit eloquence. See particularly, in confirmation of this position, the conclusion of the first head, page 13, Vol. I. ‘Without charity, compassion degenerates into weakness, courage into brutality, wisdom into artifice, civility into flattery, patience into insensibility, and temperance into mean and sordid parsimony. Surely, if there is any thing worthy or excellent on earth, any thing that can attract the veneration of men, or the approbation of God, it must arise from the prevailing influence of charity, that pure and unblemished source of all the virtues which can adorn the human heart.’—In p. 22d of the same volume there is an example of apostrophe worthy of notice. Having described the prevalence of malice and selfishness, he says, ‘This must ever be the case while men are so intent on interested ends, and bustle with such unwearied and exclusive activity in pursuing them—while so much envy, ambition, and distrust, divide the hearts of men. and even, alas! too often determine the fate of nations. O! unhappy world! how art thou thus made a stranger to those heavenly blessings thou mightest enjoy under the peaceful enjoyment of calm reason and pure benevolence! How miserably art thou racked and torn to pieces by the giddy rage of wild and hostile passions!—Yet, how much more unhappy still, wert thou to be deserted by good men, and left a prey to the tyranny and madness of the wicked.’

There is a fine strain of elegant and pathetic affection that runs throughout the whole of the first sermon. Sermon V. is also extremely animated, especially the conclusion of it, towards the bottom of p. 123, Vol. I. ‘Go on thus, O foolish and thoughtless men, dishonouring and destroying your own souls. So shall your awakened souls discover you to be wretched outcasts from his love and favour,’ &c.

Sermon IX. is a striking discourse, and the introduction to it masterly. Sermon X. is also excellent; and, in pages 256 and 257, contains a passage tenderly pathetic.

Sermon IV. of Vol. II. furnishes instances of eloquence of a different kind from the sublime and the pathetic. The whole discourse is dictated by a vigorous mind, and characterised by animation. Sermon VII. is also an animated discourse. See especially the conclusion of it, beginning page 191.—The two sermons on a future judgment, viz. XIII. and XIV. are in a strain of sublime eloquence.

Of sound and close reasoning we have, in the publication before us, examples in Vol. I. Sermon II. on Education, and in Sermon XI. which are calculated to do more good than most of the political sermons that have been lately preached. There can be nothing more rational or noble than the whole of Sermon XI. Vol. I. on the Uses of Affliction.

Of the most accurate and distinguishing, as well as the sublimest moral philosophy, we have instances in the two last sermons of Vol. I. on the subject of aspiring after perfection.

On the peculiar doctrines of Christianity our author, in the first sermon Vol. II. writes in a devout but rational and practical manner. The third sermon of the same volume contains an interesting account of the benefits of redemption. Sermons V., VI., VII., and XV. [Vol. II.] are ingenious, pious, eloquent, and interesting. A just and pleasing account is given by Professor Dalzell of the life and character of Dr. Drysdale; which we know, from personal acquaintance, were in the highest degree amiable and respectable.

ART. IX. *Thoughts on the Effects of the Application and Abstraction of Stimuli on the Human Body; with a particular View to explain the Nature and Cure of Typhus.* By James Wood, M.D. one of the Physicians to the Dispensary, and Member of the Philosophical and Medical Society of Newcastle upon Tyne; and Extraordinary Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, &c. pp. 78. 8vo. 2s. 6d. boards, Murray. London, 1793.

THE account which the author gives of the origin of those Thoughts, will not only best explain the design of the production, but afford the most satisfactory view of the principles upon which it is founded.

Dr. Wood informs us, that having, in repeated instances, exhibited the bark in typhus unsuccessfully, and it having been taken, in many of those instances, in the most advantageous manner, he naturally began to doubt of the efficacy of this medicine in typhus. He therefore took into consideration the circumstances attending those who recovered, with the symptoms of the incipient and advanced stage of the fever; and he perceived

perceived that those who recovered, enjoyed, in a great degree, the means of preventing and correcting the tendency to a putrescent state; while those who died exhibited that state in a great degree, and, during the course of the fever, discovered a particular anxiety and oppression in the act of respiration, accompanied with new symptoms of exhausted energy and strength.

While the author was meditating on these observations, recent theory suggested its assistance towards an explanation of the phenomena. He recollected the symptoms of accumulated *carbone* in typhus; that *carbone* was continually accumulating in the system, in a state of health, and was carried off, in the form of carbonic acid, by its combination with *oxygen* in the lungs. It occurred to him, that the oppression and anxiety in respiration, common in typhus, might proceed from the *oxygen's* not being sufficient to carry off the accumulated *carbone*; and he therefore concluded, that if *oxygen* could, by any means, be introduced into the system in sufficient quantity to combine with the *carbone*, that the tendency to putrefaction would be checked, and the fever consequently diminished.

In addition to these considerations, he recollected that nitre had been used in the typhus with great success by his father; that nitre contained *oxygen*; and that, as the latter forms the basis of all acidity, many other acids, as well as the nitrous, might have a similar effect.

Every observation that he had made, having also induced him to consider an *exhausted* state of the irritability of the muscular fibre, and of the excitability of the *solidum vivum*, to be the common cause of death in typhus; and different causes of death having been assigned by many authors, he endeavours to shew the probability of the cause he has mentioned, without considering that of any other, to which, by different writers, the fatal termination is attributed.

After giving this general view of the author's doctrine, and the steps which led him to adopt it, we shall only observe, that he maintains his hypothesis with ingenious and plausible arguments; though we are inclined to pay more regard to the *juvantia* and *ledentia*, in the cure of typhus, than to any suggestions of theory. But, if tried even by this test, Dr. Wood's opinion seems not to be destitute of foundation.

ART. X. *A Review of the Proceedings at Paris during the last Summer; with Observations and Reflections on the Characters, Principles, and Conduct, of the most conspicuous Persons concerned in the Suspension and Dethronement of Louis XVI.* By Mr. Fennell. pp. 492. 8vo. 6s. boards. Williams. London, 1792.

NONE of our readers, nor of the writers whom we review, can be more sensible than we are of the sacred obligation attached to our censorial office, to divest our minds of every prejudice, and to survey every controversy that arises, political, philosophical, or theological, with calmness and impartiality. To remind us perpetually of our duty, were a stranger admitted into our critical museum, where we 'in sage council sit,' he would see it hung round with the most famous oracular sayings that have been furnished by wise men of ancient and modern times for preserving the judgment from every improper bias. It will not appear surprising that, from the influence this may be supposed to have upon us, the writings of a candid, impartial man are always surveyed with unfeigned pleasure: on the contrary, when the reader for the evening recites the productions of an angry bigot, who, disregarding verity and just reasoning, conceals the truth, tries by unfair methods to support his cause, and blackens, without justice or mercy, the whole party of his adversaries (for such he accounts those who differ from him), there is a general restlessness among our corps, and uneasiness and displeasure are visible on every countenance. We are sorry to say that this was the case when Mr. Fennell's book was submitted to our review. He writes in a very agreeable manner, and discovers considerable talents; but we cannot give him the praise of fairness and impartiality. As he not only narrates facts, we mean events, but lays down political principles, or rather intends by narrating events solely to establish these principles, we shall subjoin a specimen of his political sagacity, with which he sets out in his work:

'No government can be perfect; but if perfection in government consists in the happiness of the people submitted to it, the British constitution approaches nearer to perfection than any other form whatever; and I will venture to affirm, that if it has not been adopted by any foreign power, it is because the wisdom of constituent powers have foreseen that the tempers of the people could not safely have permitted the introduction of true liberty among them. Nations, like individuals, are subject to temporary madnesses; the madness of the present moment is the chace of liberty; but the happiness or prosperity of every nation will not be found to consist in the obtaining of

of it; and is not the happiness and prosperity of a nation, which are intrinsic worths, more to be desired than a phantom which will be continually eluding their embrace? Liberty is not a plant adapted to every soil; among one people only has it yet flourished; and, I may venture to affirm, that by that people it will be ever exclusively enjoyed. The French never have been, and never will be free. Their tempers are too volatile, too changeable, too much subject to the momentary influence of sentiment, to subscribe continually to the sober limits which liberty has prescribed for herself, and without which she cannot exist. France, to be a great and happy nation, must be governed, and that government must be despotic.

Those whose intellects cannot resist the force of strong and bold assertions, may think this is wise and profound; but the philosopher, considering it as a libel on human nature and its creator God, will read it with indignation and contempt.

Mr. Fennell professes to give us a history of the events that took place in Paris during the last summer, especially the transactions of the 20th of June, the 10th of August, and the 2d of September; but we cannot give them the praise of a fair, impartial narration of facts. His account differs, in many material points, from what we deem the best authorities and most authentic documents; and we cannot help considering it as a partial representation, that has a tendency rather to mislead than to inform.

It was part of Mr. Fennell's business at Paris to draw the pictures of the National Assembly and the Convention. To a man they are destitute of every thing good, void of understanding, sense, probity, integrity; and are blackened by every crime that can degrade human nature. By way of sample, we have the birth, parentage, and education, of eleven (why not twelve, Mr. Fennell?) of the chief apostles of Jacobinism. Petion, says Mr. Fennell, was a pettifogging attorney; Robertspierre an obscure attorney's clerk; Brissot a pickpocket; Merlin an under usher to a school; Chabot the son of a baker; Rouelle kept an eating-house; Danton was the son of a butcher, and a farrier; Marat fled from his country for forging bills, and taught French in England; Carra was condemned to the gallows for breaking open a shop; Gorsas kept a little day-school, and murdered his father; Condorcet was likewise a very bad man. If Mr. Fennell does actually believe these things to be true, we may justly exclaim, 'O man, great is thy faith!' With respect to ourselves, the saying of Horace expresses our sentiments: '*Credat Judæus Apella, non nos.*' We know with certainty that the account of Petion and Brissot is absolutely false. Surely these men have sins enough to answer for, without laying to their charge crimes of which they are not guilty.

Mr.

Mr. Fennell descants too on the doctrine of liberty and equality. According to his notions of liberty, the Turks and Spaniards are free as well as the people of England. We should not have noticed his reasonings against equality, were it not to express the uneasiness we feel whenever we meet with publications which represent it as consisting in the equalisation of property. Every writer who has appeared as an advocate for political equality, defines it as conferring equal privileges, and prescribing equal duties, to every citizen; or, on framing a law that speaks the same language to all, whether it be to command, to punish, or to reward. Not to enter into the controversy on this new-fangled theme, we would only express our unfeigned grief when we see pains taken by sensible men to make people believe that it means an equal division of wealth. This may justly render it odious to every man of property: but is there any kind of equality that will appear so delicious to the poor, who constitute the largest mass of the community, as this? Tell them that this equality is introduced into France, and they will soon be anxious to have it realised in England, that they may partake of the many good things in the kitchens, and cellars, and purses, of the great and the opulent. For this reason we think every friend to the peace and order of society should use his utmost endeavours to state the doctrine fairly, and undeceive the multitude. Then let him argue against it, and confute it by all means.

Every thing in the English constitution, Mr. Fennell thinks, is as near to perfection as it is possible for any system to be in this imperfect state. As some have objected against the bribery and corruption, and the many sinecure places and pensions that exist, Mr. Fennell boldly adduces the following answer:

• Another plea for the turbulence of pretended reformers is derived from the pensions and sinecures granted by government to men apparently undeserving, and from the many posts of emolument and profit apparently of little importance: these they would have annihilated. With respect to the former, it is well known to all but the most ignorant, that every political government requires secret, concealed, and dangerous services, which no one would willingly undertake, but from the prospect of permanent advantage. Who is there that will pretend to say that the persons enjoying these pensions and sinecures have not rendered their country essential and lasting services, although the particular instances may be known only to the king or minister who granted the reward? The whole nation, perhaps, may be indebted to them for its success in foreign wars, or for the present tranquillity it enjoys: and would a generous nation wish such services unrewarded?

• With respect to the posts of emolument and profit apparently of no importance, at the disposal of the minister—it may be observed, they

they would be useless taxes on the nation, if a minister could at all times rely on the virtue and wisdom of representatives for support: but it is a certain, though a lamentable truth, that interest is too generally prevalent over principle. Men in public, as well as in private stations, will seldom be induced to act even according to their principles, unless it be made their interest to do so; while many will make a temporary sacrifice of their own inclinations, that the future exercise of them may be made more profitable. This is one of the weaknesses of humanity to which the best of governments must bend. When a power shall be discovered that can make a whole nation individually perfect, an attempt to make its government so may then be practicable; but till then, Britons may pride and content themselves with the idea, that their own constitution comprehends every possible blessing; and that its defects are imputable only to the impossibility of perfection.

Has that constitution, Mr. Fennell, every possible blessing, where the representatives of the people have not principles of rectitude sufficient to stimulate them to the discharge of their duty; but they must be allured by places and pensions, by bribery and corruption? What better are they, according to Mr. Fennell, than the rulers of France? The only difference is, the French are sanguinary, the English avaricious knaves; but both alike unprincipled. Our sentiments are very different from this gentleman's. So high an opinion have we of the excellence of our constitution, that we consider it as having no need of either corruption or knavery for its support; and we cannot help viewing those men as its enemies, and not its friends, who plead for a departure from the straight line of rectitude as necessary for carrying the measures of government into effect. Indeed, it is not without exceeding pain that not only here, but in some pamphlets by reverend divines, the authors have stepped forth as avowed advocates for the lawfulness and propriety of employing craft, and bribery, and corruption, in the government of civil society. Such doctrines, we flatter ourselves, will always be held in detestation, and those who stand up in their defence meet with that reception from every friend of virtue which their principles merit; and that in the government of communities, as well as in the regulation of private conduct, it will ever be deemed an axiom, that 'Honesty is the best policy.'

ART. XI. *A summary View of the spontaneous Electricity of the Earth and Atmosphere; wherein the Causes of Lightning and Thunder, as well as the constant Electrification of the Clouds and Vapours, suspended in the Air, are explained. With some new Experiments and Observations, tending to illustrate the Subject of Atmospheric Electricity; to which is subjoined the Atmospheric-Electrical Journal, kept during Two Years, as presented to and published by the Royal Society of London. By John Read, of Knightsbridge, London. pp. 160. 8vo. 3s. 6d. boards. Elmley. London, 1793.*

THE present work discovers great judgment, as well as industry, in the prosecution of experiments and observations, towards farther elucidating the system of electrical inquiries. Mr. Read, after taking a summary view of some experiments on spontaneous electricity, recites experiments and observations on heat, tending to prove that heat, simply considered, acts on the electricity, both naturally and artificially applied. In a subsequent chapter, he delivers some general laws respecting this branch of philosophy. We are next presented with a description of the spectacle-doubler, which, by the turning of a winch, produces spontaneously, without friction, the two states of electricity; with experiments and observations to prove that the spontaneous electricity of the doubler is obtained from the common electrified vapour suspended in the air.

Among some general observations on lightning, the author corrects a few errors, which, he remarks, seem to have sprung from the prejudice of education in some persons, and from too little attention in others:

‘First,’ says he, ‘there is no harm in, consequently no cause of fear, to be apprehended (however sensibly it may affect some) from the rumbling noise of thunder; because it consists only in a sudden concussion of the air, occasioned by the rapid and violent passing of lightning through it. The damage to be apprehended is absolutely from the lightning itself. Therefore those vulgar notions which are still retained by some, of *thunder-bolts*, hurling destruction wherever they are said to fall, are all delusive dreams; which ideas, I am of opinion, originally sprung from *heathen mythology*. Because Jupiter is said to be the god of thunder; and they have described him as holding thunder-bolts in his right-hand; that is to say, something to represent fire, flame, and zig-zag lightning.

‘The second regards the direction of lightning. It is an idea mentioned in many books, and entertained by almost every person with whom I have conversed on this subject, that all the lightning we see descends from the clouds. This sentiment seems to have been the effect of inattention. For when the immense quantity of lightning, which

which is usually seen displayed even in common thunder-forms, is seriously considered, I should imagine that it would stagger any one to think that the clouds could ever contain it all: and the more so, when it is further considered, that the earth itself is the grand source of lightning, and that none can descend from the clouds but what first ascended from the earth. Yet the quantity of it which quits the earth in settled moderate weather, is so remarkably small, as to be just sufficient to determine the aqueous vapours to be electrified positively. But that quantity, be it great or small, must necessarily render the earth in proportion thereto electrical in the opposite state. Thus art is only an happy imitation of nature; by which we indubitably know, that when an insulated body (as is the case of a cloud) is rendered electrical in one kind, an uninsulated body near it will also thereby become electrical of the contrary kind.

But to what height the daily electricity ascends into the atmosphere is quite uncertain. We are sure that the electric fluid often returns to the earth more copiously, concealed in the bosom of *snow, hail, and rain*, which must in some degree compensate for the loss daily sustained by the earth; and so recruits and keeps up the perpetual circulation of this wonderful agent. Now, should the silent and invisible descent of the electricity, by means of seasonable showers, be equal to the daily ascent by means of heat and vapour; whence is that amazing continued blaze of lightning, which is usually observed in thunder-forms, and which is sometimes continued during some hours?

It is a common notion, and generally adopted in the description of thunder-forms, or of the damages occasioned by lightning, that the matter of lightning always comes from the clouds and goes to the earth. That this is sometimes the case there is no manner of doubt; but I can with confidence assert, that the contrary of this proposition takes place much more frequently, viz. that the matter of lightning, or the electric fluid, proceeds from the earth and goes to the clouds. But this will be discussed more fully in the two following chapters.

Thirdly, a great variety of terms are commonly used in describing the appearances and effects of lightning, which are very indefinite, and do rather mislead than inform the reader. Such as flash, vivid dart, forked, zig-zag, ball of fire, cable of light, and a sheet of continued blaze, &c. If a lighted torch be whirled round like a sling, the rapidity of the motion will exhibit to the eye a circle of light; or if the torch be swiftly moved in a right line, or in zig-zags, the appearance of light will seem to follow the same direction. Therefore we ought not to suppose, when we see a body of electric light in its passage between two conductors, that it does actually fill, at the same instant of time, the whole tract it passes through. But these, though the best arguments which the senses can furnish of the course of lightning, are but faint representations, when it is considered that the velocity of lightning has been found, by experiment, to be nearly instantaneous.

Mr. Read next recites experiments and observations, tending to prove that every flash of lightning consists of positive and negative

negative light; and which rush into union from two opposite directions. These are succeeded by farther Observations, and Conjectures on the Phenomena of Lightning; some Experiments and Observations on the Leyden Bottle; a Letter on Electricity to Mr. A. Walker, lecturer on experimental philosophy; and Remarks on Dr. Peart's late book on Electricity.

What adds greatly to the value of the present work is, 'a Journal on Atmospheric Electricity, continued for two years, and which appears to have been kept with the utmost accuracy. In these we find the author has very judiciously inserted some thunder-storms which had happened in different parts of Great-Britain, with the view of ascertaining whether some contemporaneous appearances in his apparatus might not be attributed to them. It is by the diligence, the observation, and the sagacity, of such experimenters as Mr. Read, that the doctrine of electricity can in time be perfectly explored.

ART. XII. *Observations on Scrophulous Affections; with Remarks on Schirrus, Cancer, and Rachitis.* By Robert Hamilton, M.D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edin. F.R.S. Edin. Honorary Member of the R. Ph. S. Edin. and C.M.S. London. pp. 236. 8vo. 3s. boards. Dilly. London, 1791.

IT is not Dr. Hamilton's intention to treat systematically on any of the diseases mentioned in the title-page; but only to offer some observations on the various appearances of scrophulous affections, which have occurred to him in a long course of practice; besides a few from reading. He is induced to think, with others who have written on schirrus, cancer, and rickets, that these diseases have a strong relation to scrophula, if they are not in reality mere modifications of that affection. In respect of medical treatment, he does not suggest any thing new; but he recites the history of thirty-six cases, exemplifying the method of cure, and accompanied, occasionally, with practical observations.

We insert the following passage, as relating to a practice which is justly censured by the author:

* To the preposterous practice of strait-lacing, now introducing, may be added another extremely pernicious; that is, the steel backs now in use in genteel boarding-schools for ladies, and creeping into private families. By this machine miss is in a manner put into a moving pillory; her back is prevented bending forwards, her shoulders are pinioned tight backwards, and her head is kept erect, and is prevented from making any inclination forwards, by means of an iron collar fastened to the plate behind. The consequence of this restraint

restraint is, that the young lady will try to relieve herself from the pressure of the upright piece, applied directly over the spinal processes of the vertebræ, from that of the cross piece over the scapulae, from the galling of the shoulder-straps on the arm-pits, by wringing herself into such an attitude, whilst she wears it, as to procure some ease. But this cannot be readily done, unless by twisting herself a little sideways, to slip the springs clear of the parts they press on, particularly the spinal processes of the vertebræ, and bending the spine somewhere. And it may be easily collected, from what has been said on frait-lacing, that if the confinement is continued, the foundation is laid for a crooked spine for ever.

The moment miss is released from this machine, she stoops, and brings her shoulders forwards more than ever, in order to give herself ease, by relaxing those muscles which have been stretched by an unnatural exertion. And, besides the danger of a crooked spine, her attitudes from this restraint will become stiff, and more ungraceful than ever.

The dancing-masters' stocks are full as reprehensible: there is a peculiar make in the articulations of some subjects, which cannot be altered; to place the limbs out of their natural state and attitudes will give pain; therefore the moment the feet are removed out of confinement the toes are turned inward more than ever to procure ease.

Dr. Hamilton, having frequently experienced good effects from the hemlock-bath in cancerous complaints, he recommends the use of it, if not as a radical cure, at least as a palliative, in cancers of the uterus, bladder, rectum, &c. For this purpose, he has adopted an air-vessel of tinned iron, with proper valves, and a long flexible tube, to a common pewter syringe, and fixed both in a wooden frame; so that, when put into a vessel containing water or any decoction, it acts upon the principle of a fire-engine, and, by working the piston of the syringe, throws a continued stream, in what quantity and with what force the operator pleases.

Dr. Hamilton's Observations, without adding much to the fund of medical knowledge, may be regarded as a confirmation of the established method of cure in the diseases of which he treats, and as a proof that, in his own private capacity, he practises with judgment.

ART. XIII. *Peace and Union recommended to the associated Bodies of Republicans and Anti-republicans. By William Frend; M.A. Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. St. Ives; printed for the Author. 1793.*

CONSIDERING the well-known warmth of Mr. Frend's temper, with the peculiarity of his sentiments and situation, the present may be called a very moderate performance. On

the subject of a parliamentary reform it may surprise many of our readers to hear that Mr. Friend's wishes are very far short of what have been expressed by his Grace of Richmond, and even by Mr. Pitt. On the union of church and state, he shews no mercy, nor on the church establishment, or test act. After some remarks on French politics, he points out the happy situation of this country; and endeavours to prove, by the present sentiments expressed towards our constitution, that no period can be more favourable for a peaceable reform, concluding with the following remarks: 'Whatever may be our fate with respect to foreign nations, peace and union are the greatest objects at home. Let the republicans be moderate in their demands, and the anti-republicans not pertinacious in opposing every reform; and government, strengthened by the accession of both parties to it, as a centre of union, will present to the world a compact body, firmly united to preserve an improving constitution, and to promote the public happiness.'

The appendix, being short and full of good things, we have extracted the whole of it:

'The Effect of War upon the Poor.'

'Three days after the debate on the king's message, I was walking from my friend's house to the neighbouring town, to inspect the printing of these few sheets; and in my way joined company with two men of the village, who, being employed by the woolstaplers to let out spinning to the poor, had lately received orders to lower the value of labour. We were talking on this subject, when the exclamations of a group of poor women going to market overhearing our conversation, made an impression on my mind, which all the eloquence of the Houses of Lords and Commons cannot efface. 'We are to be sconded threepence in the shilling; let others work for me, I'll not. We are to be sconded a fourth part of our labour. What is all this for?' I did not dare to tell them what it was for, nor to add insult to misery. What is the beheading of a monarch to them? What is the navigation of the Scheldt to them? What is the freedom of a great nation to them, but reason for joy? Yet the debating only on these subjects has reached their cottages. They are already sconded threepence in the shilling. What must be their fate when we suffer under the most odious scourge of the human race, and the accumulation of taxes takes away half of that daily bread which is scarce sufficient at present for their support?

'Oh! that I had the warning voice of an ancient prophet, that I might penetrate into the most inmost recesses of palaces, and appal the haranguers of senates. I would use no other language than that of the poor market-women. I would cry aloud in the ears of the first magistrate, we are sconded threepence in the shilling, the fourth part of our labour—for what? I would address myself to the deliberating bodies: we are sconded threepence in the shilling, the
fourth

fourth part of our labour—for what? Is there a man who could stand out against this eloquence? Yes: thousands. Threepence in the shilling conveys no ideas to them. They know not what a cottage is; they know not how the poor live, how they make up their scanty meal. Perhaps there may be some one in our House of Commons, whose feelings are in union with mine; communicate them to your colleagues; impress them with the horror attendant on their deliberations; tell them what the deduction of threepence in the shilling occasions among the myriads of England. And should any grave courtier, pitying the distresses of the poor, be anxious to relieve them, say to him, There is an easy method; let the first magistrate, the peers, the representatives of the people, the rich men of the nation, all who are for war, be sconded one fourth part of their annual income to defray the expence of it. Let them be the first sufferers, let the burden fall on them, not on the poor. Alas! my poor countrymen, how many years calamity awaits you before a single dish, or a glass of wine, will be withdrawn from the tables of opulence.

At this moment, perhaps, the decree is gone forth for war. Let others talk of glory, let others celebrate the heroes who are to deluge the world with blood, the words of the poor market-women will still resound in my ears, 'We are sconded threepence in the shilling, one fourth of our labour—for what?'

ART. XIV. *A Supplemental Volume of Bishop Warburton's Works.*
pp. 511. 8vo. 6s. boards. Cadell. London, 1788.

WITH the late splendid edition of Bishop Warburton's works the literary world is well acquainted. This supplemental volume is designed for the use of those who possess Dr. Warburton's other works as originally published. It contains—'The Ninth Book of the Divine Legation of Moses'—'Three Sermons on different Subjects'—'Directions for the Study of Theology'—and 'Remarks on Neal's History of the Puritans.'—Dr. Warburton's manner of writing hath often been the subject of criticism; it is that of a man who thinks clearly and strongly. It is often figurative, but not elegant. The volume before us is stamped with the character of Warburton.

From the Divine Legation we shall extract a curious passage respecting the creation of our first parents:

'Because the formation of woman, from the side of man, was not circumstantially related till after the account of God's placing man in Paradise, both Jews and Christians have generally concurred in one opinion, that Eve was not created till Adam was put into possession of the garden of Eden; for they took it for granted that Moses (though in a moral and religious history of the creation and fall

fall of man) had observed a chronologic order *. But let it be observed, that Eve could not be created in the garden; since we are expressly told, that she was created along with Adam, some time before, namely, on the sixth day. Male and female created he them—a declaration so decisive, that the rabins, who will needs have Eve completely formed in Paradise, gathered from the words, male and female, that Adam was an Androgone, a double animal, or man-woman, joined side to side; and that the operation of disjoining them was performed in the garden; where, indeed, Jesus tells us, not a separation, but a closer union commenced.’—‘On a supposition of a chronologic order in the relation, we shall be forced to conclude, not only that Eve was created in Paradise, but that she was not created till after the command was given not to eat of the tree of knowledge of good and evil; for the command is found in the 17th verse of this chapter, and her formation from the rib not till we come to the 22d verse; consequently the prohibition did not bind or affect Eve. Yet she tells the Serpent (and sure she did not pay him in his own coin), that this prohibition equally concerned both her and Adam.’

It was lately thrown out as a problematical question, whether the theological works of Warburton have a greater tendency to confirm or to weaken the interests of religion? We conceive there is too much reason for inclining to the latter opinion. More ingenious than solid, more plausible than convincing, more learned than pious, the writings of the Bishop of Gloucester have been, in many instances, a stumbling-block to the honest, unphilosophical believer, whilst they have furnished the polemic with an abundant supply of materials on which to exercise his ingenuity, and diffuse his controversial acrimony. There were some opposers of Warburton, indeed, from whose productions the world has derived essential advantages; and, in this light, the Bishop of Gloucester's theories have been virtually

* Hooker, in his Eccles. Policy, B. V. S. 73, observes, ‘Woman was, even in her first estate, framed by nature not only after in time, but *inferior in excellencies*.’—As to the *inferiority* of woman, there are some lively spirits of the present age who would disdain the authority of Hooker, or even of scripture itself. The locubrations of Mrs. Woolstoncraft seem to have worked an alarming change in the sentiments of the sex: and, replete as it is with absurdities and indecencies, her book (we blush at the idea) hath found a place in the boarding-schools of young ladies. There is one seminary of female education in particular, where the governess (possessing all the conceit of Mrs. Woolstoncraft without an atom of her sagacity) takes every opportunity of inculcating the monitrous doctrines of that book: it is a seminary in a western town—protected, by its insignificance only, from our pointed censure. We forbear to name it, from the hope that it will never emerge from obscurity.

productive

productive of good. To the late Rector of St. Mabyn, in particular, whose memory every Christian must revere, we are indebted for that excellent work, the 'Dissertation on the Book of Job,' in consequence of Dr. Warburton's Divine Legation of Moses. The erudition of Mr. Peters was uncommon; and his piety was unaffected. Yet neither his erudition nor his piety were able to shelter Mr. Peters from the most illiberal abuse, '*The insolence—the fraud—the nonsense—the dissingenuousness, the ignorance, the prevarication*'—were terms which 'PROUD GLOUCESTER*,' scrupled not to apply to the humble parish priest. But 'was it necessary,' says Mr. Peters, 'that he should assume these superior airs, to let the simple know what an awful distance is to be maintained between a dignified and an undignified clergyman?' This passage occurs in the reply of Mr. Peters to the notes of Dr. Warburton, subjoined to the Critical Dissertation on the Book of Job. A part only of Mr. Peters's Reply has appeared in print; but we have lately perused the whole in manuscript. And the present, we conceive, is no unfavourable opportunity for the publication of this little work, with which we venture to predict that the public would be much gratified; relishing it (if their taste any way agree with our own) as a pleasant morceau of criticism and well-seasoned raillery.

ART. XV. *A Narrative of the Campaign in India which terminated the War with Tippoo Sultan in 1792. With Maps and Plans illustrative of the Subject, and a View of Seringapatam. By Major Dirom, Deputy Adjutant General of his Majesty's Forces in India.* pp. 296. 4to. 11. 1s. boards. Faden, London, 1793.

THE present narrative appears before the public with every circumstance in its favour. It is the work of a professional man, who relates, with a proper knowledge of his subject, the events which either took place under his own eye, or of which he must have received the most correct and authentic information from his official station. The important consequences resulting from the events narrated by Major Dirom make the publication particularly interesting to every British reader who is at all concerned for the prosperity of his country; and the writer, in his detail, has so united that professional information which

* See Churchill's Dedication of his Sermons to the Bishop of Gloucester.

is expected by the soldier, to the general information and entertainment which is required by the public at large, as to render his book at once an useful and a pleasing performance.

The work is divided into three parts. The first contains the operations and transactions previous to the siege of Seringapatam; the second details the march of the allied armies to Seringapatam, and the siege of that capital; and in the 3d we have the treaties of peace, and a review of the consequences of the war.

After a short retrospect to the conclusion of the former campaign towards the end of May 1791, our author proceeds to relate, in his first part, the arrival of the Mahratta army, under Hurry Punt and Purseram Bhow. The ample supplies they brought were highly acceptable to the British forces, at that time in want of every thing, and worn down by fatigue and disease. By the following extract the reader will become acquainted with some of the characteristic features of this singular people:

• Lord Cornwallis, accompanied by General Medows, their staff, and some of the principal officers of the army, went to the tents at the hour appointed, which was one o'clock; but the chiefs, who consider precision as inconsistent with power and dignity, did not even leave their own camp till three, though repeated messages were sent that his lordship waited for them. They at length mounted their elephants, and, proceeding as slow and dignified in their pace as they had been dilatory in their preparation, approached the place of appointment at four o'clock, escorted by several corps of their infantry, a retinue of horse, and all the pageantry of eastern state. The chiefs, on descending from their elephants, were met at the door of the tent by Lord Cornwallis and General Medows, who embraced them, and, after some general conversation, retired to a private conference in another tent.

• Hurry Punt, about sixty years of age, a Bramin of the first order, and the personage of greatest consequence, is said to be the third in the senate of the Mahratta state. His figure is venerable, of middle stature, and not corpulent; he is remarkably fair, his eyes grey, and his countenance, of Roman form, full of thought and character.

• Purseram Bhow, aged about forty, stands high in military fame among the Mahrattas. He is an active man, of small stature, rather dark in his complexion, with black eyes, and an open animated countenance, in which, and his mien, he seemed desirous to shew his character of an intrepid warrior. His antipathy to Tippoo is said to be extreme; for the Sultan had put one of his brothers to death in a most cruel manner, and Hyder's conquests to the northward fell chiefly upon the possessions of his family, which he lately recovered by the reduction of Darwar.

• Hurry

• Hurry Punt was destined to be the chief negociator on the part of his nation ; each commanded a separate army, but the Bhow was to be employed more immediately in the active operations of the field.

• The chiefs themselves, and all the Mahrattas in their suite, and indeed all their people, were remarkably plain, but neat, in their appearance. Mild in their aspect, humane in their disposition, polite and unaffected in their address, they are distinguished by obedience to their chiefs, and attachment to their country. There were not to be seen among them those fantastic figures in armour so common among the Mahomedans, in the Nizam's, or, as they style themselves, the Mogul army ; adventurers collected from every quarter of the East, who, priding themselves on individual valour, think it beneath them to be useful but on the day of battle, and, when that comes, prove only the inefficiency of numbers, unconnected by any general principle of union or discipline.

• The Mahratta camp was at the distance of about six miles from ours, and, on approaching it, had the appearance of a large irregular town ; for the chiefs pitch their standards, and take up their ground around their general, without order ; and their tents being of all sizes, and of many different colours, at a distance resemble houses rather than canvas. The streets too of their camp, crossing and winding in every direction, display a variety of merchandise, as in a great fair. There are shoofs, jewellers, smiths, mechanics, and people of every trade and description, as busily employed in their occupations, and attending as minutely to their interest, as if they were in Poonah, and at peace. The Bombay detachment, advanced always at some distance in their front, served as a picquet to their camp ; and they had some outposts of their own, established more with a view to cover the supplies coming in to their army, than to guard against a surprise from the enemy.

• The park of artillery, where all their guns are collected, made an extraordinary appearance. The gun-carriages, in which they trust to the solidity of the timber, and use but little iron in their construction, are clumsy beyond belief ; particularly the wheels, which are low, and formed of large solid pieces of wood united. The guns are of all sorts and dimensions ; and, having the names of their gods given to them, are painted in the most fantastic manner ; and many of them, held in esteem for the services they are said to have already performed for the state, cannot now be dispensed with, although in every respect unfit for use. Were the guns even serviceable, the small supply of ammunition with which they are provided has always effectually prevented the Mahratta artillery from being formidable to their enemies.

• The Mahratta infantry, which formed part of the retinue that attended the chiefs at the conference, is composed of black Christians, and despicable poor wretches of the lowest cast, uniform in nothing but the bad state of their muskets, none of which are either clean or complete ; and few are provided with either ammunition or accoutre-

ments. They are commanded by half-cast people of Portuguese and French extraction, who draw off the attention of spectators from the bad clothing of their men, by the profusion of antiquated lace bestowed on their own; and if there happens to be a few Europeans among the officers and men, which is sometimes the case, they exccrate the service, and deplore their fate.

The Mahrattas do not appear to treat their infantry with more respect than they deserve, as they ride through them without any ceremony on the march, and on all occasions evidently consider them as foreigners, and a very inferior class of people and troops. Indeed the attention of the Mahrattas is directed entirely to their horses and bazars, those being the only objects which immediately affect their interest. On a marching day, the guns and the infantry move off soon after daylight, but rarely together; the bazars and baggage move nearly about the same time, as soon as they can be packed up and got ready. The guns and tumbrels, sufficiently unwieldy without farther burden, are so heaped with stores and baggage, that there does not seem to be any idea of its ever being necessary to unlumber, and prepare for action on the march. As there are no pioneers attached to the Mahratta artillery to repair the roads, this deficiency is compensated by an additional number of cattle, there being sometimes a hundred, or a hundred and fifty bullocks, in a string of pairs, to one gun: the drivers, who are very expert, sit on the yokes, and pass over every impediment, commonly at a trot. The chiefs remain upon the ground, without tents, smoking their hookers, till the artillery and baggage have got on some miles; they then follow, each pursuing his own route, attended by his principal people; while the inferiors disperse, to forage and plunder over the country.

A few days after the junction of the Mahratta armies, an irregular fire of cannon and musquetry was heard in their camp between nine and ten at night. The troops immediately turned out in our camp, and stood to their arms, thinking that Tippoo had certainly attacked the Mahrattas; but it proved to be only the celebration of one of their ceremonies, in which they salute the new moon, on its first appearance.

Another circumstance occurred soon after, also characteristic of their customs and discipline.

The ground on which our army had encamped at the junction, being bare of grass, and extremely dirty, Lord Cornwallis was desirous of marching, and sent to the Mahratta chiefs to request they would move next morning, as their camp lay directly in our route. They returned for answer, 'that they should be happy to obey his lordship's commands; but, as they had halted eight days, it was not lucky, nor could they, according to the custom of their religion, march on the ninth day.' His lordship gave way to their superstitious prejudice, and deferred his march.

The remainder of the first part contains the various operations and arrangements previous to the second march to Seringapatam. This was by no means a period of inaction. It was employed in collecting from every quarter the necessary supplies of provisions,

provisions, bullocks, artillery, ammunition, &c. without which there could be no hopes of success, and in reducing several forts, which it would have been dangerous to have left in the possession of the enemy. For a particular account of the transactions which occurred at this point of time, which do equal credit to the genius and military skill of the commander in chief, and to the good conduct and bravery of the officers and men, we must refer the reader to the work itself.

In the second part the author gives a clear and minute detail of the brilliant action which produced a peace so advantageous to this country, and its Indian allies. Every preparation for attacking the capital of the Mysore country being now completed, and the Bombay army having re-ascended the Ghauts, the confederate forces marched from Hooleadroog on the 1st of February, 1792, and came in sight of Seringapatam on the 5th. No time was lost. The position of the enemy having been reconnoitred on the morning of the 6th, on the same evening orders were issued for immediately attacking Tippoo's fortified camp. The attempt to force an encampment of such extent, in the fortifying of which so much time and attention had been employed, defended by a large army, and in many places by the guns of Seringapatam, struck our Indian allies with surprise and consternation. They looked upon the attempt as desperate, and, dreading the most fatal consequences, already considered themselves as abandoned as a prey to the victorious Tippoo. The attack, indeed, at first sight, appears daring even to rashness, when it is known that 8700 infantry, of which only 2800 were Europeans, was the whole force employed on this occasion, and that they had no cannon, but trusted solely to their muskets, bayonets, and scaling ladders. But the General knew the superior courage and discipline of his own soldiers, and the infinite advantages that these would give them over the troops of the enemy, especially in a sudden and unexpected nocturnal attack; and the confidence with which this little army marched to this apparently hazardous attack, gave the happiest promises of success. Our limits will not permit us to follow the intelligent writer in the minute and correct detail he gives of this splendid enterprise; nor, indeed, would any account we could give of it be satisfactory without the plans which accompany the publication: we can therefore only say, that the detail is highly interesting, not only to the officer, but to every class of readers.

This masterly enterprise was crowned with the most complete success. After an engagement, which continued during the 6th and 7th of February, Tippoo Sultan's camp was stormed on every side, and the British army established themselves on the island of Seringapatam, and closely invested the capital of the kingdom of Mysore;

• Such,

'Such,' says our author, 'were the consequences of the battle of the 6th and 7th of February, 1792; an event that will ever be contemplated with admiration in the annals of the British transactions in India, not less from the signal advantages gained over an able and obstinate adversary, than from the consummate wisdom displayed in the plan of attack. Formed on the result of the experience acquired in the course of the war, it was the boldest and most masterly measure that the relative position and circumstances of the contending armies could suggest; and executed with a degree of vigour which gave way to no resistance, and with a steadiness of discipline which no temptation of plunder could allure; the only spoils secured were the arms, the standards, and the cannon of the enemy.'

What adds considerably to this important advantage, which in fact decided the fate of the war, is, that our loss amounted only to 116 killed, 377 wounded, and 42 missing; while that of the enemy, by a muster taken some days after the battle, appeared not less than 20,000, of which about 4000 were killed.

After their defeat, the fertile mind of Tippoo still produced expedients to delay the fatal crisis which he saw approaching; trusting that the necessary supplies for so large an army must soon fail, and that his enemies would again be forced to retire from his capital. But his military exertions and political subterfuges proved equally ineffectual, and the haughty Sultan was at last obliged to submit to articles of peace dictated by the British commander.

The preliminary articles of peace, the final adjustment of the definitive treaty, with a retrospect of the military transactions in India since the former peace, and a short statement of the general consequences of the late war, form the contents of Part III.

The following account of the arrival of Tippoo's sons as hostages at head quarters, and the final adjustment of the treaty, we give as a specimen of the work:

'On the 26th (February) about noon, the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned as they went out, and every where crowded with people, who, from curiosity or affection, had come to see them depart. The Sultan himself was on the rampart above the gateway. They were saluted by the fort on leaving it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they passed was turned out to receive them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents which had been sent from the fort for their accommodation, and pitched near the mosque redoubt, where they were met by Sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head quarters.

'The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly caparisoned, and seated in a silver howdah, and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the persons already mentioned, also on elephants. The procession was led by several camel harricaras, and seven standard-

bearers,

bearers, carrying small green flags suspended from rockets, followed by one hundred pikemen, with spears inlaid with silver. Their guard of two hundred sepoy, and a party of horse, brought up the rear. In this order they approached head-quarters, where the battalion of Bengal Sepoy, commanded by Captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a street to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his staff, and some of the principal officers of the army, met the Princes at the door of his large tent as they dismounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldest, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngest, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were seated on each side of Lord Cornwallis, Gullam Ally, the head vakeel, addressed his lordship as follows: 'These children were this morning the sons of the Sultan my master; their situation is now changed, and they must look up to your lordship as their father.'

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own sons, anxiously assured the vakeel, and the young princes themselves, that every attention possible would be shewn to them, and the greatest care taken of their persons. Their little faces brightened up; the scene became highly interesting; and not only their attendants, but all the spectators, were delighted to see that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would soon be reconciled to their change of situation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dressed in long white muslin gowns, and red turbans. They had several rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was suspended an ornament consisting of a ruby and an emerald of considerable size, surrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans each had a sprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and instructed in their manners to imitate the reserve and politeness of age, it astonished all present to see the correctness and propriety of their conduct. The eldest boy, rather dark in his colour, with thick lips, a small flattish nose, and a long thoughtful countenance, was less admired than the youngest, who is remarkably fair, with regular features, a small round face, large full eyes, and a more animated appearance. Placed too, on the right hand of Lord Cornwallis, he was said to be the favourite son, and the Sultan's intended heir. His mother (a sister of Burham-ud-Deen's, who was killed at Sattimungulum), a beautiful, delicate woman, had died of fright and apprehension, a few days after the attack of the lines. This melancholy event made the situation of the youngest boy doubly interesting, and, with the other circumstances, occasioned his attracting by much the most notice. After some conversation, his lordship presented a handsome gold watch to each of the princes, with which they seemed much pleased. Beetle-nut and otter of roses, according to the eastern custom, being then distributed, he led them back to their elephants, embraced them again, and they returned, escorted by their suite and the battalion, to their tents.

Next day, the 27th, Lord Cornwallis, attended as yesterday, went to pay the princes a visit at their tents, pitched near the mosque redoubt,

redoubt, within the green canaut or wall, used by the Sultan in the field, of which we had so often traced the marks during the war,

The canaut of canvas, scollopped at top, was painted of a beautiful sea-green colour, with rich ornamented borders, and formed an elegant enclosure for the tents. It was thrown open to the front, and within it the pikemen, Sepoys, &c. of the princes' guard formed a street to a tent, whence they came out and met Lord Cornwallis. After embracing them, he led them, one in each hand, into the tent, where chairs were placed for his lordship, themselves, and his suite. Sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and the Nizam's vakeels, also attended the conference.

The eldest boy, now seated on his lordship's right hand, appeared less serious than yesterday; and when he spoke, was not only graceful in his manner, but had a most affable, animated appearance. The youngest, however, appeared to be the favourite with the vakeels; and, at the desire of Gullam Ally, repeated, or rather recited, some verses in Arabic, which he had learned by heart from the Koran, and afterwards some verses in Persian, which he did with great ease and confidence, and shewed he had made great progress in his education.

Each of the princes presented his lordship with a fine Persian sword, and in return he gave the eldest a fusée, and the youngest a pair of pistols, of very fine and curious workmanship. Some jewels, shawls, and rich presents, were then offered to his lordship as matter of form; after which, beetle-nut and otter of roses being distributed, the princes conducted his lordship without the tent, when he embraced them and took his leave.

The tent in which the princes received Lord Cornwallis, was lined with fine chintz, and the floor covered with white cloth. The attendants sprinkled rose water during the audience; and there was a degree of state, order, and magnificence, in every thing, much superior to what had been seen amongst our allies. The guard of Sepoys drawn up without, was clothed in uniform, and not only regularly and well-armed, but, compared to the rabble of infantry in the service of the other native powers, appeared well disciplined and in high order.

From what passed this day, and the lead taken by the eldest son, it seemed uncertain which of them might be intended for Tippoo's heir. Perhaps, and most probably, neither; for Hyder Saib, about twenty years of age, has always been said to be Tippoo's eldest son; had been educated accordingly, and had accompanied his father constantly during the war, till lately, when he was sent on a separate command, and distinguished himself very eminently in the relief of Gurramconda. The vakeels, however, asserted that he was not a legitimate son, nor in favour with Tippoo, from being of an unpromising disposition; but there is reason to suspect that they were directed to make this sacrifice of truth to policy, in order to prevent the demand of Hyder Saib as one of the hostages, which, to a prince at his time of life, must have been extremely disagreeable; though the others, from their early age, would feel less in that situation, and would not suffer essentially by removal from their father's care.

• Hyder

‘Hyder Saib is, from all accounts, a most promising youth, and, should he be destined to succeed to the kingdom of Mysore, it may be hoped that the misfortunes which the inordinate ambition of his father has brought upon their family, will lead him to recur to the prudence of his grandfather; and that his reign, as well as the remainder of Tippoo's life, will be employed rather to preserve and improve what remains, than to attempt to recover the half which they have lost of the extensive dominions so lately acquired by the wisdom and valour of old Hyder.’

‘On the 19th of March, the young princes, attended and escorted in the same manner as when they first arrived in camp, came to perform the ceremony of delivering the definitive treaty to Lord Cornwallis and the allies. They arrived at head-quarters at ten o'clock, which was the hour appointed, and were received by his lordship as formerly, with the greatest kindness and attention. The boys had now gained more confidence; the eldest, in particular, conducted himself with great ease and propriety; and, after some general conversation, having a parcel handed to him, which contained the definitive treaty in triplicate, he got up and delivered the whole to Lord Cornwallis.

‘The Nizam's son, or Mogul Prince, as they call him, and the Mahratta plenipotentiary, Hurry Punt, did not think it consistent with their dignity to attend on this interesting occasion, any more than on the first day that the princes arrived in camp. Even their vakeels were late in making their appearance. At length, on their coming, the eldest prince receiving two of the copies of the treaty, returned to him by Lord Cornwallis, delivered a copy to each of the vakeels of the other powers, which he did with great manliness, but evidently with more constraint and dissatisfaction than he had performed the first part of the ceremony. One of the vakeels (the Mahratta) afterwards muttering something on the subject, the boy asked at what he grumbled; and, without giving him time to answer, said, ‘they might well be silent, as certainly their masters had no reason to be displeased.’ These may not be the precise words, but something passed to that effect, which did great honour to the boy's manliness and spirit.

‘The princes having completed the ceremony, and delivered this final testimony of their father's submission, took their leave and returned to their tents; and thus ended the last scene of this important war.’

By the decisive advantages obtained in this campaign the ambitious schemes of Tippoo Sultan were totally deranged. He beheld himself confined within the walls of his capital, and there obliged to submit to the law of the victor. Having lost 67 forts, 801 guns, and 49,340 men, he was now forced to purchase a peace at the expence of three crores and thirty lacs of rupees, of an annual income of much above a million sterling, and by the dismemberment of half his dominions; and, to complete his humiliation, was compelled to give two of his sons as hostages for the faithful performance of the treaty.

Major Dirom concludes his narrative with the following sensible remarks:

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‘ Although the army has not profited considerably by this successful war, its consequences have not been the less important to the public; and, considering the debt or expence of the two millions incurred as a burden on the acquired revenue of four hundred and thirty thousand pounds a year; or as a general burden on the possessions in India; the inconvenience will remain unselt in the prosperity arising from the following advantages.

‘ I. The enemy, whose power rendered the possessions on either coast an unprofitable tenure, and whose policy and ambition might have finally overthrown the British empire in India, is so reduced in dominion and resources, that our governments, with common precaution, can have no further apprehension of being disturbed by the restless, enterprising spirit of the family of Hyder.

‘ II. The presidency of Madras, which lay exposed to sudden invasion from Mysore, is now in possession of every pass into the high country on that side; and being covered by an acquisition of extensive valuable territory, has a strong, contracted frontier from Amboor to the Cavery, defended by the forts of Kistnaghery, Rayacotta, Salem, Sankeridurgum, and Namcul; while the possession of the fort of Dindigul and its district, adds essentially to the revenues and protection of the southern countries. Peace and security thus established, the Carnatic may be expected to recover from every former calamity, to be defended at less expence, and to become a source of increasing wealth and commerce.

‘ III. Bombay, which in India, like Gibraltar in Europe, has hitherto been supported at a great expence, as being necessary to the general interests of commerce, will in future take its rank in value and importance with the other presidencies. In possession of the provinces which yield the richest produce in India, extending from Travancore to the Keway river, on the north; protected by Palgautcherry towards Coimbatore below the Ghauts, and by the Coorga frontier above the Ghauts; the Malabar coast is in a state of still greater security than the Carnatic; and being a country perhaps the most varied and fertile in the world, but hitherto a scene of constant warfare and bloodshed, its improvement may be carried to any extent by a series of mild and equitable government.

‘ Tippoo, thus circumscribed on the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar, has only the Coimbatore country, below the Ghauts, from which he can attempt to invade the English settlements; and that being a confined province, under a very steep and difficult pass, without any place of strength for a magazine; limited on one side by the Cavery, and flanked by Palgautcherry and Dindigul; there can be little reason to apprehend danger from that quarter, while the Mysore country is open to a more immediate invasion from our armies on either coast.

‘ Such appears to be our improved relative situation with the Sultan; while, on the side of the native powers, the acquisition of strength and territory gained by the Mahrattas, whose frontier is advanced beyond Darwar to the Tumbudra; and by the Nizam, whose frontier, strengthened on the one side by Kopaul and the Tumbudra,
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and on the other by Gunjecotta and the river Pennar; will better enable those powers to defend their territories against the encroachment of Tippoo and his family; and will give them a position nearer to the aid of the British power, to which they are indebted for their prosperity, and to whose alliance both inclination and interest must prompt them to look forward.

Finally, this war has vindicated the honour of the nation; has given the additional possessions and security to the settlements in India which they required; has effected the wished-for balance amongst the native powers on the Peninsula; has, beyond all former example, raised the character of the British arms in India; and has afforded an instance of good faith in alliance, and moderation in conquest, so eminent, as ought to constitute the English the arbiters of power, worthy of holding the sword and scales of justice in the East.

An appendix is subjoined, containing the Definitive Treaty with Tippoo—Translation of an Address to Mussulmen in general, from Fittah Ally Cawn Tippoo—Translation of Tippoo Sultan's Great Seal of State—and Translation of a Letter from the Rajah of Travancore to Sir Archibald Campbell. The volume concludes with a Glossary containing an explanation of the Indian terms; a most necessary accompaniment in every work where eastern terms are employed; the want of which has often given us much trouble and perplexity in our character of Reviewers. A view of Seringapatam, taken on the spot, and well executed by Byrne, serves as a frontispiece to the work. The other plates are, a group of Mahratta horse, Tippoo Sultan's great seal, and six plans and maps illustrative of the operations and consequences of the campaign.

We are particularly pleased with the plain and manly style of the Narrative, and cannot enough commend the modesty of the author, who, though from his official station he must have been actively employed in many of the transactions he relates, yet keeps himself so much in shade, that the *quorum pars fui* is hardly to be perceived.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XVI. *Anecdotes intéressantes et secrètes de la Cour de Russie, tirées de ses Archives; avec quelques Anecdotes particulières aux differens Peuples de cet Empire. Publiées par un Voyageur qui a séjourné trixe Ans en Russie.* 6 tom. Paris, 1792.

ART. XVI. *Interesting and secret Anecdotes of the Court of Russia, extracted from its Archives; with some particular Anecdotes respecting the different People who inhabit that Empire.* Published

Published by a Traveller who resided Thirteen Years in Russia.
pp. 1407. small 8vo. 6 vols. 15s. Paris, 1792. Sold by J. de Boffe, Gerard-Street, London.

THESE anecdotes, which are of a mixed nature, were collected, as the author informs us, during a residence of thirteen years in Russia. Of some of the circumstances related in them he was an eye-witness; but for the greater part he was indebted to private manuscripts, never intended to be published, and to the contributions of various distinguished personages with whom he lived in habits of intimacy. Among these were Field Marshal Count Munich, Count de Lestocq, Prince Tscherbassoff, Prince Trubetskoi, and Chamberlain Richeffsky. Those relating to natural history were furnished to him by several members of the Academy of Sciences, and other men of letters; and particularly by Professor Fischer, who had made long journeys into the interior parts of Russia. In these anecdotes Peter I. as may be well supposed, makes a conspicuous figure; but the author does not confine himself merely to the reign of that singular prince. He gives us a number of interesting particulars respecting the preceding as well as the following reigns; and though we cannot say that they are all new, there are a great number which we never remember to have seen. As a specimen of these anecdotes we have extracted the following:

‘ Though the reign of Peter I. was one continual scene of warfare, and though he greatly extended the boundaries of his empire, it would be wrong to believe that he was influenced by a mania for conquests. On the contrary, he was fully persuaded that conquests tended only to remove his garrisons to a greater distance; to extend the line of circumference; and to weaken the internal strength of the empire. When he was in Persia, Prince Cantemin, his interpreter, who wrote his manifestoes in the Persian language, was one day complimenting him on his new conquests, and, among other things, told him that to his titles, already numerous, he would soon add that of Schaw of Persia. ‘ You mistake my meaning,’ said the Czar, ‘ and it appears that you are little acquainted with my real interests; I do not look forwards to the acquisition of more land, I have already too much; I want only water.’

Peter having arrived one day at Cronstadt, at the time when the sailors on board the different ships were at dinner, he entered into familiar conversation with them, according to his usual custom, and sitting down, one of them presented him with a plate and a spoon, which he accepted. He was, however, much surprised to find the meat and pearl of a very bad quality, and immediately asked the tars whether they were always served

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in the same manner. He then got up, went and inspected the provision casks, and finding that all the provisions were spoilt, he ordered the grand flag to be hoisted; upon which all the captains repaired on board the admiral's ship. After explaining, in a few words, the cause of his assembling them, he sent likewise for the commissaries, and shewing them the provisions, and telling them that they had been guilty of a fraud, he ordered the captains to bring them to trial in his presence. The commissaries, conscious of their guilt, threw themselves at the feet of the prince, implored his forgiveness, and endeavoured to soften his anger by confessing their fault, and promising to behave better in future. But nothing could move the Czar from his purpose. *You are knaves*, was all the answer they received. The judges having unanimously decided, that their crime deserved death, Peter ordered them all, seven in number, to be immediately hung up at the masts of a like number of ships.

In the southern part of Siberia there is a kind of disorder which announces itself by a small white pustule, accompanied with a slight pain. This pustule suddenly assumes the appearance of one of the pustules of the small-pox, and on the second day increases to the size of a pea, and on the third to that of a nut. On the fourth the body swells, the disease then becomes incurable, and death soon follows. Every part of the body is equally the seat of the eruption. Sometimes there is only one pustule; and some people have had as many as forty. This disorder, the progress of which is so rapid, is not dangerous when a remedy is applied in proper time; and though it is not contagious, all the Siberians in the southern part of the country are subject to it. The Cossacks cure themselves in a little time, by opening the pustule on the third day with a Chinese needle, which they thrust into it till the patient feels pain. A reddish moisture then issues from it, and, after having gnawed the ulcer with their teeth, and sucked and cleansed the wound, they sprinkle over it sal ammoniac, and cover it with moistened leaves of tobacco. A physician has lately pointed out a much simpler remedy, which is, to wash the part affected by the virus with the patient's urine. The learned are not agreed respecting the origin of this malady. Some attribute it to insects, and others to exhalations from the high mountains, &c. It is perhaps owing to both these causes combined, with others not yet known.

The following is a common method of hunting wolves among the Esthonians and the Livonians. A company of hunters place themselves in a very close sledge, and one or two sucking pigs, enclosed in a bag, are tied behind. One of these, seated in the back part of the sledge, every now and then pulls a string

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fastened to the bag, in order to make the pigs squeak; and when the wolves, attracted by this cry, are within shot, they fire upon them. If they are so fortunate as to kill three or four, the rest betake themselves to flight; but if only one is killed, the remainder stay to eat the carcase, setting up their usual howl, and begin then with more intrepidity to pursue the pigs. When they reach the sledge, they commence their attack, and endeavour to jump upon the top of it, and to piss upon it, until they are either all destroyed, or unable to continue the contest.

[*To be continued.*]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For *M A Y* 1793.

POLITICAL.

ART. 17. *Letters from Paris during the Summer of 1792; with Reflections.* pp. 298. 8vo. 5s. boards. Clarke. London, 1793.

THESE letters contain a narrative of the proceedings at Paris during the months of July and August, 1792. If this writer's testimony can be depended upon, and subsequent occurrences give it a considerable portion of credibility, we know not whether the benevolent timidity of the late king, the temporising imbecility of the legislative assembly, or the determined profligacy of the Parisian mob, form the most conspicuous figure in the picture; the three together have involved France in a state of confusion and anarchy, from which she can scarcely be extricated for many years.

ART. 18. *Sentiments on a War with France.* pp. 35. 8vo. 1s. Flexney. London, 1793.

This gentleman apologises for his publication by shewing the impropriety of writing upon political subjects at all in representative governments. As we cannot admit the validity of this paradoxical excuse, we acknowledge we have read his work with pleasure, and sincerely commend him for employing his talents in this way. The following short extract may administer some consolation to the croakers of the present day:

‘ The advantages of this war have been slightly touched on above, in mentioning the trade of St. Malo, Nantz, Bourdeaux, and the West-India islands, and the Mediterranean; but it is not only to capture the ships engaged in the trade of those places that we should aim, we should, and may so much distress their marine, as to turn the trade itself into channels of our own, where the address, integrity, and extensive

extensive credit of our merchants, will long keep it, that of the West-India islands, perhaps for ever: the French manufacturers have already suffered greatly by the war, the continuance will ruin them quite. The possessions of the French in the East-Indies, though of no great value, would immediately fall into our hands; and if we can keep the French from returning thither, we should be saved from many a war, where their intrigues have heretofore raised cruel wars against us; some advantages might likewise be gained on the coast of Africa. I do not mention as an *advantage* the opportunity we have of taking revenge for the injuries done in America, but I may well mention them as a *justification* of whatever ills we may now bring on our foes. And here it is worth while to remark, that the same faction who brought on the late revolution in France, were those who began plotting to cause disturbances in America immediately after the peace of Paris in 1762. They first obtained a name of distinction in the administration of Turgot, that of *Economists*; under the cloak of which, they began to suggest many of the extravagancies which have since been put into real execution; and at that time a song was made in ridicule of them, and which is yet well known in France, wherein the confusion which now appears is predicted, as arising necessarily from such principles. Two persons, who came much more prominently forward on the canvas after that time were M. Neckar and M. de la Fayette, who are now sunk into the shade of a too late repentance. But it is still more remarkable, that the unfortunate monarch who has just fallen a martyr to his own goodness, long hesitated to sign the fatal treaty with America, and when, after long importunity, he did it, said, 'We shall all live to repent it.'

ART. 19. *Reasons for preventing the French, under the Mask of Liberty, from trampling upon Europe.* By W. Black, M. D. one of the Royal College of Physicians in London, Member of several Literary Societies, &c. pp. 49. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. London, 1792.

Dr. Black's pamphlet contains some strong reasoning; but as the danger of the French *trampling upon Europe* is now done away, we shall forbear any more particular animadversions upon the present production.

ART. 20. *Inevitable Consequences of a Reform in Parliament.* By William Plafair. pp. 27. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. London, 1792.

This author observes, that amidst all the clamour for a reform in parliament, it has never yet been specified what kind of reform ought to take place; and, until this be done, the clamour can be founded on no rational considerations. A partial reform, he thinks, would not only be unsatisfactory, but is in itself ridiculous; and a complete reform would produce an immediate revolution in government. When no salutary mode of procedure has been previously settled, every declaration in favour of reform must be regarded as of doubtful, if not really of dangerous tendency. We are, however, of opinion, that a partial reform would be better than none; but the plan requires to be concerted with mature deliberation, and not submitted to the decision of popular levity or enthusiasm.

- ART. 21. *Inquiry into the Grounds of the political Differences which are supposed to exist among some of the Members of the Whig Party.* pp. 36. 8vo 1s. Ridgway. London, 1793.

This writer attributes the difference which at present exists among the members of the opposition who have assumed to themselves the exclusive appellation of whigs, to the dread of a revolution entertained by certain individuals among them. The House of Commons, and the nation at large, have borne their testimony to the truth of these apprehensions; and the author might have spared himself the trouble of writing a pamphlet to inform the people of a circumstance of which they were well apprised before his publication appeared.

- ART. 22. *Testament of his late most Christian Majesty Louis XVI. King of France; with short Observations by the Translator.* 8vo 2s. Nicoll. London, 1793.

Some short observations are added to an excellent and faithful translation of the last will and testament of the unfortunate Louis, which do honour to the humane heart and sensible head of the writer.

- ART. 23. *A Speech delivered at the Jacobin Club, supposed in the Candleries of Glasgow.* pp. 4. 8vo. No Date

A little penny publication (as we imagine), and not dear at the price, as it contains wholesome advice to our countrymen, who, after reading it without prejudice, may be more than a penny the better men.

- ART. 24. *Letter to the Right Hon. Charles James Fox; in which is proved the absolute Necessity of an immediate Declaration of War against France. By the Author of the Flowers of the Jacobins.* pp. 40. 8vo. 1s. Owen. London, 1793.

Though this work is not written in the impassioned language of the Flower of the Jacobins, yet it has a far superior claim to attention; it contains truth, which the former was a stranger to, and is one of the best which has hitherto appeared on the subject in so small a compass. Mr. Fox is not treated with improper asperity; nor has the right honourable gentleman often met with an adversary possessed of so much sound sense, information, and politeness.

- ART. 25. *Letter from an independent Elector of Westminster to the Right Hon. Charles James Fox.* pp. 16. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale. London, 1793.

Mr. Fox's parliamentary conduct in the present important situation of affairs, is here commented upon with great severity. The letter, however, has little claim to attention from common readers, and can give little information; it may be classed among the swarm of pamphlets to be looked at and forgotten.

- ART. 26.** *Collection of Addresses, transmitted by certain English Clubs and Societies to the National Convention of France.* pp. 48. 4to. 2s. Debrett. London, 1793.

A ingenious manœuvre of the committee of alarm, which has been so successfully employed in this country to lull the people into security.

- ART. 27.** *Outline of a general Reform in the British Constitution, 'By a Gentleman uninfluenced by Party.* pp. 89. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Owen. London, 1793.

This gentleman has certainly a better title to the character of impartiality than many of our modern reformers: we would, however, wish he had purged himself of some dislike he seems to entertain for the present ministry: and many of his alterations proceed upon the presumption of personal reformation among the people; which, indeed, we would advise our countrymen to begin as soon as may be.

- ART. 28.** *Letters to the British Nation, and to the Inhabitants of every other Country who may have heard of the shameful Outrages committed in this Part of the Kingdom, &c. &c. By the Rev. J. Edwards.* pp. 72. 8vo. 4 Parts. 2s. 6d. Birmingham, printed; sold by Johnson, London. 1793.

The publication of these letters sufficiently proves that the odium theologicum with which the clergy has been proverbially reproached, still continues to animate that body. Unless these reverend gentlemen consent to put up their carnal weapons, we would advise the sober inhabitants of Birmingham to compel them to keep the peace by an application to the civil magistrate.

- ART. 29.** *A seasonable Publication. By the Rev Richard Taprell.* pp. 48. 4to. 2s. Dilly. London, 1792.

If the reverend author had confined this admonition to his private flock, the community at large would have suffered no material injury. The notes, if read, together with the references which are made in them, constitute by far the most valuable part of the performance.

- ART. 30.** *Notes on the Claim of the British Peers to vote at the Elections of the Representatives of the Peerage of Scotland to Parliament.* pp. 29. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. London, 1793.

This pamphlet appears to contain the necessary information on the point in question.

- ART. 31.** *Oration of Defeze in Defence of Louis XVI, pronounced at the Bar of the National Convention, 26th Dec. 1792, &c. &c.* pp. 90. 8vo. 2s. Dilly. London, 1792.

Though the character of the men who sat in judgment on the unhappy Louis could give his advocates little reason to hope for the acquittal of their illustrious client, yet we cannot help admiring the readiness with which they undertook, and the firmness and eloquence

with which they conducted his cause. A rhetorician might perhaps object to the method in which the subject is arranged; the arguments in favour of the unfortunate monarch, deduced from the inviolability of his constitutional character, should have followed those which were founded on the more permanent basis of the purity of his intentions, and the rectitude of his conduct. The great Roman orator, in his celebrated speech for Cluentius, has followed this method under two distinct heads of defence, the one founded on fact, and the other on principles of law.

ART. 32. *A Bill for amending the Law of Imprisonment, &c. presented to the House of Lords by Lord Rawdon.* pp. 40. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. London, 1793.

The noble Lord who is the promoter of this bill deserves every commendation for the ability and perseverance with which he has pursued this favourite object. The existing laws of imprisonment for debt require a total reformation; and though a particular *et cetera* on this plan would issue with greater propriety from the chambers of the barrister, than the garret of the reviewer, yet perhaps a secret sympathy we may feel for the objects to be relieved by it, must induce us to declare our hearty approbation of its general spirit and tendency.

ART. 33. *The Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, on Friday the 17th of Feb. 1792, on proposing the Application of an additional Sum for the Reduction of the public Debt, and the Repeal of certain Duties on Malt, on Female Servants, on Carts, on Waggon, on Horses, and on Candles.* pp. 48. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons. London, 1792.

Mr. Pitt's eloquence, great as it universally is allowed to be, never shone so conspicuously as on this occasion. We hope his sanguine expectations will not be disappointed in other respects, as it has been in the continuance of peace. The great causes to which he attributes the successes of the country, are, besides the industry and energy of the people, and the freedom of the government, the extensive credit it possesses, and the prosperity of continued peace. On the present state of each we need make no comments. The industry and energy of the people, great as it is, cannot be exerted without that encouragement which capital, and the credit it brings with it, produces. This credit seems almost annihilated, and war is exchanged for the blessings of peace.

ART. 34. *Rights of Citizens; being an Inquiry into some of the Consequences of social Union; and an Examination of Mr. Paine's Principles touching Government.* pp. 131. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. London, 1793.

There are those who pretend to form an opinion of a book by the first page. Others have gone further, and asserted the title is sufficient. But if we are often deceived by a *taking title*, such is not the case with the 'Rights of Citizens;' every sentence of which halts

as much, and is as affectedly quaint, as the phrase 'touching government,' and 'consequences of social union.'

- ART. 35. *A Letter from the Right Hon. Edmund Burke, Member of Parliament in the Kingdom of Great-Britain, to Sir Hercules Langrisb, Bart. M. P. on the Subject of Roman Catholics in Ireland, and the Propriety of admitting them to the elective Franchise, consistently with the Principles of the Constitution as established at the Revolution.* pp. 88. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. London, 1792.

Mr. Burke having spoken in the House of Commons much against the repeal of the corporation and test act, and having, in his late celebrated publication, written much against reforms of any kind, has taken great pains to reconcile all this with the proposed admission of Catholics to the franchise in Ireland. In attempting to do this, he has shewn a degree of ingenuity we hardly expected, even from such talents as his. We have been less surprised at the comprehensive knowledge he displays, and the ingenuity with which he turns it all to the best account. But that he should conceive, and *seem to prove*, that the Catholics in Ireland are less turbulent than the Dissenters in England, and less formidable, though more numerous, and consequently entitled to greater indulgencies, is more than we expected, even from the well-known courage of this literary hero.

- ART. 36. *Declaration of the Merchants, Bankers, Traders, and other Inhabitants of London, made at Merchant Taylor's Hall, Dec. 5th, 1792, with a List of the Names subscribed thereto.* pp. 73. 8vo. 1s. No Bookseller's Name.

Every one has read in the newspapers this declaration, which is published in the form of a pamphlet, for the purpose of printing the names of the subscribers.

- ART. 37. *Five Minutes Advice to the People of Great-Britain, on the present alarming Situation of public Affairs; in which the good Policy of immediate Hostilities with France is candidly investigated.* By a Citizen of London. pp. 20. 8vo. 6d. Robinsons. London, 1792.

The citizen's arguments are very forcible. We are now, however, engaged in a war, which, we trust, will place the liberties of Europe on a firm and permanent foundation. *Causa autem in est dubitandi.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

- ART. 38. *Hartford Bridge; or, The Skirts of the Camp: an Operatic Farce, in Two Acts. Performed at the Theatre-Royal. Written by Mr. Pearce.* pp. 41. 8vo. 1s. Longman. London, 1793.

To place this little drama on the rack of criticism, would be certainly improper, perhaps cruel. Mr. Pearce does not appear to expect much credit from it. He wrote it to afford an hour's amusement to minds tortured and depressed by reflections upon the consequences of war, its guilt, its misery, and its mischief; and we do him only justice when we say, that he has succeeded in his intentions.

ART. 39. *Kearsey's Strangers' Guide or Companion through London and Westminster and the Country round; containing a Description of the Situation, Antiquity, and Curiosity, of every Place within the Circuit of Fourteen Miles; together with a Map of the surrounding Country, and a Plan of the Cities of London and Westminster and the Borough of Southwark.* 8vo. 3s. C. and G. Kearsey. London, 1793.

The reader is led to expect much from the title-page, and we can assure him that he will not be disappointed.

ART. 40. *Gouer's Patriotic Songster; or, Loyalist's Vocal Companion; being a Selection of the most approved constitutional and loyal Songs that have appeared from the various Associations in this Kingdom for preserving Liberty and Property against Republicans and Levellers; together with suitable Toasts and Sentiments. To which is added, Two Soliloquies of the unfortunate French Monarch, Louis XVI. and other poetic Pieces on his Imprisonment and Execution.* pp. 62. 12mo. 6d. Downes. London. No Date.

He who expects to find poetry in this collection will be disappointed. The effusions of loyalty, however, may perhaps atone for the disappointment.

ART. 41. *Something which concerns every Body,* pp. 16. 12mo. 6d. No Bookseller's Name.

The writer of this *Something* is a physician, who takes this novel method of informing the public that he cures *sixty-six* disorders, and lives at No. 17, Brain's Row, Spa Fields.

ART. 42. *Trial of Stephen Devereux for Perjury; tried before Lord Kenyon and a Special Jury, by whom he was honourably acquitted. Taken in Shortband by Marfom and Ramsay.* pp. 58. 8vo. 1s. Marfom. London, 1793.

This defendant was tried for perjury, which he was said to have committed on the trial of Captain Kimber. After a hearing of some length he was acquitted by the jury, to the entire satisfaction of the noble judge who presided on the occasion.

ART. 43. *The Carthusian Friar; or, The Age of Chivalry: a Tragedy, in Five Acts, founded on real Events. Written by a female Refugee.* pp. 78. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Owen. London, 1793.

The author tells us, in her preface, that she is only eighteen. She attempts to blunt the pen of criticism by saying that she is 'convinced her feeble endeavours will need no patron's name to shelter them, when she reflects, that to the hearts of Britons the plea of virtue and misfortune was ever sure entrance.'—After such an address to us, what ought we to say?—

We do perceive here a divided duty—
and therefore we remain silent.

DIVINITY.

ART. 44. *A Sermon, preached at the Opening of the New Ebury Chapel, near Sloane Square, Chelsea, by the Rev. Richard Sandilands, LL. B. pp. 24. Cadell. London, 1792.*

Of the necessity of attending public worship, and the advantages resulting from the habitual practice of sacred duties, the present discourse wholly consists: it is above mediocrity, but below excellence.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For MAY 1793.

URBANITY OF THE SPEAKERS IN PARLIAMENT.

THE moderation which distinguishes our political contests is at once a proof of the excellence of the national character, and the superiority of the British constitution. In the heat of parliamentary disputation, or at the more awful crisis of popular insurrection, opposing parties have seldom disregarded that decorum which mitigates the harshness of discordant sentiments, or forgotten that generosity which alleviates the horrors of internal commotions. The intercourse of social life destroys the effect of public disagreement, the obligations of domestic friendship control the operations of mutual ambition, and the energy of our government checks the progress of contending faction, and fixes the limits beyond which it cannot proceed. Secured from the apprehension of personal inconvenience by the dignified forbearance which adorns our fellow-citizens, and protected from the evils of anarchy by the vigour inherent in the existing system of the country, we are enabled to argue with liberality, to determine with caution, and to act with firmness. The mind must therefore turn with satisfaction from the tumultuous squabbles of national conventions, and the still accumulating horrors of the continental war, to contemplate the proceedings of the British senate, to watch the exertions of varying parties, and from their conduct to deduce axioms for the guidance of the political machine, and rules for the direction of individual conduct. The power of regulating the method of their appointment, and ascertaining the nature of their connexion with the community at large, is the most important privilege which the House of Commons enjoys. The manner in which this delegated duty should be discharged, and the

PERIOD AT WHICH IT SHOULD BE EXERCISED,

are inquiries which have equally occupied the attention of the patriot, and inflamed the zeal of the partizan. The dangers to be feared from disregarding the universal sense of the nation, can only be exceeded by the consequences arising from tamely acquiescing in the unreasonable solicitations of discontented demagogues; and if the requests of the one should be granted with cheerfulness, the demands of the other should be rejected with disdain. Perhaps it is as incumbent upon the executive authority to guard against needless innovation, as to discharge with fidelity the ordinary duties required of it by the legislature; and a season of domestic embarrassment and foreign war may be considered as an improper period for restraining the hands of the ministers of the crown, and checking their operations for the general benefit. The propriety of the time at which a reformation is attempted to be introduced, the opinion of the people concerning its expediency, and an examination of the effects likely to result from it, are topics which ought to be investigated with the utmost attention before the abstract merits of the question are discussed; and the members of administration may, without falling under the imputation of inconsistency, have altered their opinions on the former of these inquiries, though they still retain their original ideas on the latter. Their opponents, triumphing in the detection of this difference of sentiment, have forgotten the circumstances on which it is founded; and neglected to answer the objections on which it rests for support. Exclusive, however, of the immediate adherents of the minister, and the particular associates of Mr. Grey, we may point out a third class of men, who condemn every attempt at amendment as pregnant with the seeds of unknown calamity, and whose suspicions are, in some degree, justified by the growing strength of a faction which seeks to erect, on the basis of personal representation, a system involving the destruction of the monarchical and aristocratic branches of the constitution. The one of these last-mentioned parties has enlisted under the formidable banners of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the other has flocked in crowds to the standard which has been lately erected by the friends of the people. After many petitions had been presented to the House from various parts of the country, praying for a reform in the parliamentary representation, and almost unanimously requiring a substitution of elections on the basis of population, in lieu of the methods at present adopted, immediately previous to his making his promised motion, Mr. Grey brought forward

A PETITION FROM THE FRIENDS OF THE PEOPLE,

containing an ample detail of the mischiefs which had originated from the corruptions of the legislative body, the baneful effects of ministerial influence, and of the interposition of the peerage; and pledging themselves to prove, by the most irrefragable testimony, the truth of every assertion contained in the body of this memorial. As the substance of the writing had been carefully disseminated through the nation, it may be suspected that it was rather calculated to rouse the passions of the vulgar, than to inform the judgment of the House, and, by the acquisition of transient popularity, to shed a ray of splendour over approaching discomfiture, and to secure the approbation of the multitude, though destined to disappointment in the senate. Possessing a degree of penetration sufficient to discern existing abuses, and a portion of that querulous eloquence which enables him to deplore their pernicious effects, the present leading advocate for reform appears to be destitute of that extent of understanding which is requisite to discover an antidote to those disorders which neglect may have introduced, and which a perturbed imagination has undoubtedly magnified. We remark in him a zeal for improvement which bears no proportion to his capacity for bringing it about; an impatience under existing inconveniences, without the power of extricating the country from their pressure; and a passion for those general lamentations which may please the ear of the rhetorician, but can never direct the judgment of the statesman. But the cause of the friends of the people might boast of more powerful aid than any he could bestow; the great leader of opposition, whose active mind pervades the whole mass of political knowledge, and illuminates every subject on which it condescends to dwell, supported their petition by every argument which experience could furnish, ingenuity suggest, or eloquence adorn. And, without presuming to decide whether their failure is to be attributed to the intrinsic badness of their case, or the invincible prejudices of their judges, justice demands this testimony of applause to their illustrious patron. The part which

MR. PITT

was called upon to act on the present occasion was of a peculiarly difficult nature. Stigmatised by his antagonists as a determined apostate, suspected by many of his friends of fickleness and irresolution, he was bound either to renounce the error in which he had persisted so long, or demonstrate that the evils likely to ensue from a reform of representation were of greater magnitude than any which could be expected from the continuance of the present established mode of election. But the criticalness of his situation only gave him an opportunity of evincing

evincing the superiority of his talents, without deviating from the principles he had originally adopted, he displayed the impropriety of carrying them into execution at the present crisis; and though he did not pretend to question the expediency of some reformation, yet he amply shewed the necessity of granting with caution, and denying with resolution. And if independence of character, and integrity of deportment, could give any additional weight to reasonings which were founded on the truest political wisdom, and the greatest general knowledge, the candid observer might be disposed to pay a more distinguishing mark of attention to

THE SPEECH OF MR. WYNDHAM

than to the vehement logic of Mr. Fox, or the elegant declamation of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. In whatever aspect this complicated question is viewed, the necessity of circumspection will become more apparent, if arbitrary power is to be shunned on the one hand, licentiousness and anarchy must be avoided on the other; and in endeavouring to remove the ill effects of an inadequate representation, we ought to be careful to avoid the institution of a representative body without respectability, superintended by an executive power destitute of any controlling influence.

The perpetual attempts which have been made to postpone

A PARLIAMENTARY REFORM

furnish the strongest evidence of its necessity, and afford the happiest omens of the beneficial consequences with which it would be attended. While the members of every administration which has been formed since the revolution have watched every opportunity to extend the power of the crown, they have seized with equal ardour every occasion which offered for diminishing the authority of the people. And if, in consequence of the success of their machinations, measures have been carried into effect under the sanction of the House of Commons, contrary to the interests, and adverse to the wishes, of the nation, it must inevitably follow, that that body can no longer be deemed the organ by which the general will is conveyed; and instead of being regarded as the unbiassed directors of sovereign authority, must be considered as the passive tools of ministerial despotism. So perfectly well persuaded are the enemies of reform of this dilemma, that, without endeavouring to give it an answer, they have constantly aimed at evading the question by pleading the impropriety of entering upon the discussion, or boldly attempting to cut the knot which they cannot unloose, by denying the principles on which the inquiry is founded, though congenial to every maxim of British jurisprudence, and every

every enactment of British legislation. But though the latter of these objections might have come from the mouth of Walpole, yet the superior sense of the nation would now turn with disdain from the repetition, and the superior virtue, or more consummate modesty of the present administration has taught them to reject it with equal contempt. But this concession is attended with no beneficial influence; it only furnishes the means of a more plausible deception, by flattering the people with the prospect of acquiring privileges which can never be reduced into possession, or enjoyed in practice. The enjoyment of rights which are founded on the immutable principles of truth, are still made to depend on the fluctuating prejudices and contracted views of interested individuals: but imprisoned violence will at last have vent, and, unless its fury is diverted, must burst in thunder on the head of the oppressor.

IN ANSWER

to all these arguments in favour of a reform, it may, however, be urged, that its advocates constantly refer to an ideal era of perfection to which the constitution never attained, which never existed but in the conceptions of these projectors, and to which it is to be ardently hoped it may never arrive. They complain of the mischiefs which the present system produces, but have they duly considered whether these inconveniences are not rather to be ascribed to the necessary imperfection of every human institution, than to the corruption of ministers, or the prerogatives of the crown? Can they produce any form of political institution which can be experimentally shewn to have produced so much good, with so small a portion of evil, as the constitution at present established? With a partiality which nothing but the most wilful blindness can excuse, they have ascribed every calamity which the nation has endured to the overgrown power of the executive government, without once reflecting on the blessings in which we have participated while that authority was in its utmost vigour. In order to justify a claim of relief, the nature of the grievance ought to be distinctly proposed, and the remedy to be applied specifically stated. On this occasion, however, one petition has stated a multiplicity of facts, which, upon their assertion, we must conclude to be abuses; while the others have prescribed various methods of cure, without knowing the malady under which they laboured. The legislature was therefore bound to pause till their constituents were agreed as to the terms of their requests; imprudent concessions would only increase unreasonable demands, while a firm denial might finally produce that degree of moderation which was the most certain road to a temperate amendment. In a commercial country property

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perty must ever be considered as the true basis of representation; and while it continued to be represented, no material injury could ensue. The existing governments of Europe may be divided into three classes: those whose foundation is popular, and whose superstructure is monarchical; and such as are supported by military despotism, or a pure democracy. Under the first of these forms Great-Britain had acquired unequalled prosperity; the states of the continent had groaned for many centuries under the second; and France had now only shaken off the yoke to submit to the more awful bondage of personal representation. To follow their example with the view of their misery before our eyes, would be a degree of folly which could only be exceeded by the madness of that people in turning with disdain from the model of perfection which the British constitution presented, to indulge in the chimeras of speculative philosophers, ushered into practice by the precipitate efforts of new-fledged legislators.

MR. HASTINGS.

As a singular exception to that spirit of moderation which distinguishes our politics, we turn with sorrow to the impeachment of Mr. Hastings. Equally to the disgrace of English jurisprudence, and of national gratitude, this illustrious man continues to spend the remnant of a life long devoted to the service of his country, under the pressure of a prolonged and vindictive prosecution. Deserted by all parties, because too independent to court any, he has witnessed every fluctuation of the political world, without rousing commiseration, or obtaining justice. The founder of the British prosperity in the East, his hands prepared the wreath which now adorns the brow of Cornwallis, and opened to the President of the Board of Control those resources with which he promises to support this exhausted nation. Though he may be consoled by the late proceedings of the House of Commons, when opposed to the accusations of its managers, yet what could have supported him under their relentless severity, but his acquittal before the great tribunal of public opinion, aided by that *alta mens conscia recti* which disdains to appeal to any other authority than the unerring monitor in the human breast, which bears the amplest testimony to the integrity of his intentions, and the propriety of his conduct.

The government of the regions which the talents of Mr. Hastings preserved to Great-Britain, and the regulation of the trade to them, are objects which are now occupying the attention of parliament. Our territories in the East were acquired with that rapidity which has ever characterised Asiatic conquests; and before the Company attracted the attention of the executive power, they were transformed from a community of obscure

obscure adventurers into the sovereigns of states more extensive, more wealthy, and more populous, than the hereditary dominions of the king to whom they owed subjection. The admitted right of property to the acquisitions they had made, and the apparent right by conquest to the countries they had subdued, rendered it impossible to transfer their possessions into the hands of the crown, without the most flagrant injustice; and from an original neglect on the part of administration, the natives of British India were compelled to remain the subjects of a commercial aristocracy; a system of policy which, by uniting the selfishness of the merchant with the haughtiness of nobility, made them the victims of avarice and pride in conjunction. The improvidence and prodigality of these monopolisers made it necessary for government to interfere; and the power which saves from ruin, acquires the title to prescribe rules for future conduct. But though the necessity and expediency of an amendment was admitted, considerable difficulties arose in regard to the mode of effectuating it. By throwing

THE PATRONAGE OF THE EAST-INDIA COMPANY

into the hands of the crown, the monarchical branch of the constitution would obtain a preponderance destructive of the two other branches of the legislature; and if it was bestowed on the House of Commons, that accession to their authority, in addition to their admitted prerogative of granting or withholding supplies, would bring the throne and the peerage into a complete state of subserviency to their will. The vigilant and ingenious ambition of Mr. Fox, as a remedy to these inconveniencies, suggested the expedient of creating a species of fourth estate, composed of himself and his associates, by whose strength they would have been enabled to impose themselves upon the king as his perpetual ministers, and, by this newly-created oligarchy, direct the Commons at discretion. This scheme failed of success rather from that want of public confidence which has accompanied its projector through life, than from personal attachment to the sovereign, or experience of the talents of a new ministry which he had chosen. But the events which followed their nomination completely justified the choice he had made. Though the appointment of

THE BOARD OF CONTROL,

under Mr. Pitt's act, had a tendency to increase the power of the crown, yet as that measure was unaccompanied with those gross violations of private property, and that boundless thirst of domination which were so conspicuous in the scheme of his opponent, it was acquiesced in without reluctance, and has been attended with success. The plan which has now been brought forward

forward by the Secretary of State, differs only from that of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in the addition of two new commissioners to the Board of Control; and though this alteration may tend to excite popular clamour, yet as it will be found that distant colonial possessions can only be preserved to the parent state by being immediately subjected to the executive power, we must consent to relinquish our eastern dominions, or provide for them that form of government by which only they can be retained. From the nature of oriental traffic, the fortunes of a few individuals would be insufficient to carry it on: the continuance of the monopoly is therefore not only expedient, but necessary; though at the same time such an opening is now given to private adventurers as may convince them of the mistaken ideas which they have entertained on this subject, and rectify their errors without materially injuring their circumstances. The whole of the scheme is distinguished by marks of great discernment and good sense, and reflects high honour on the talents and application of Mr. Dundas.

THEATRE OF WAR.

On the continent several actions have taken place, in which the valour of the British troops was conspicuous. General Dampierre, the commander of the army of the French republic, has died a martyr to its cause. Custine has resigned his authority; and the various and successful revolts in different parts of France are bringing upon that unhappy country all the horrors of intestine discord, superadded to the calamities inflicted upon it by its numerous foreign enemies.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

The season of the year advances, and Lord Hood, with a numerous and well-appointed fleet, has sailed for the Mediterranean. France, therefore, has to encounter new attacks, without any probability of being able to withstand them. It may, nevertheless, be truly said, that the National Convention, under the influence, or rather direction, of the Jacobin Club, is a more formidable enemy to that unhappy country, than all the European powers which are at this moment combined against her.

Communications for THE ENGLISH REVIEW are requested to be sent to Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-street, London; where Subscribers for this Monthly Performance are respectfully desired to give in their Names.

T H E

ENGLISH REVIEW,

For J U N E 1793.

ART. I. *Transactions of the Linnean Society. Vol. 1. pp. 274.*
4to. 18s. boards. White and Son. London, 1791.

IT is acknowledged throughout Europe, that in some of the departments of natural history the present English collections exceed those of former times, and of other countries, in a degree that precludes all comparison. This is particularly true with regard to botany. It was therefore equally to be expected and desired, that the cultivators of natural history in our metropolis should form themselves into a society, as well for their own mutual information, as for the diffusion of their observations and discoveries. Without such an association, it was impossible to reap from the knowledge and the treasures of individuals all the assistance they were capable of affording towards the advancement of this extensive and delightful science. Dr. Smith, the president, thus describes the objects of the new institution, the foundation of which he justly glories in having contributed to lay:

• Besides an attention to natural history in general, a peculiar regard to the productions of our own country may be expected from us. We have yet much to learn concerning many plants, which authors copy from one another as the produce of Great Britain, but which few have seen; and our animal productions are still less understood. Whatever relates to the history of these, their economy in the general plan of nature, or their use to man in particular, is a proper object for our inquiries. Of the productions of our own country we ought to make ourselves perfectly masters, as no natural object can any where be studied half so well as in its native soil. This, however, not being always practicable, botanic gardens and cabinets of natural history have been invented, in which the productions of the most distant climes are brought at once before us. No country that I know of can bear a comparison with England in this respect.

• The slightest piece of information which may tend to the advancement of the science we should thankfully receive. However trifling in itself, yet, combined with other facts, it may become important. Whatever relates to the determination of species, even in the lowest and seemingly unimportant tribes of nature's works, ought never to be neglected. Nor let the humble and patient student of this very difficult part of natural history be discouraged by the sneers of the supercilious coxcomb, or of the ignorant vulgar. He who determines with certainty a single species of the minutest moss or meanest insect, adds so far to the general stock of human knowledge, which is more than can be said of many a celebrated name: no one can tell of what importance that simple fact may be to future ages; and when we consider how many millions of our fellow-creatures pass through life without furnishing a single atom to augment this stock, we shall learn to think with more respect of those who do.

• But nothing will be with more reason expected from the members of this society than a strict attention to the laws and principles of Linnæus, so far as they have been found to be good. No where have his works been more studied and applied to practice than in this country; nor can any other be so competent to estimate his merits or correct his defects. I am persuaded nothing can be done more useful to the science of natural history, than working on the publications of this illustrious man as a foundation, to endeavour to give them that perfection of which they are capable, and to incorporate with them all new discoveries. We who have it in our power to give real information, should despise the silly vanity of making new systems or arrangements, merely for the sake of being talked of.

The introductory discourse, from which the above extract is taken, is sensibly and candidly written; but it contains nothing remarkable for ingenuity or novelty. It is a rapid review of the progress of natural history, from the earliest ages to our times. The principal promoters of this branch of knowledge are named, and a short but just delineation is added of their merits. The discourse exactly resembles those introductory lectures in which it is usual for professors to sketch the history of the science they are about to teach; and it would perhaps with greater propriety have been addressed to beginners than to proficients. It occupies 55 out of 257 pages.

The introductory discourse is succeeded by Professor Tingry's paper on *some extraneous Fossils of Switzerland*, written in French. In this paper are described some charred impressions (*empreintes carbonifées*) of vegetables, found over a bed of coals in Savoy. The four first specimens described are reeds or filices of undistinguishable genera. The fifth appeared clearly to be the *asplenium nodosum, frondibus pinnatis, pinnis oppositis, lanceolatis, integerrimis*, of Linnæus. This plant is a native of South America, and utterly unknown in our latitudes. This obser-

vation, as the author remarks, confirms the opinion of Bernard de Jussieu respecting both the vegetable impressions, and the insects found in the mines of Europe; that their living congeners belong to India and America. The sixth and last specimen consists of a piece of wood, partly converted into a siliceous petrification, and partly into *vrai charbon fossile, tres-noir luisant*, &c. This is the only paper in the volume that has any connexion with mineralogy.

Ornithology affords but one paper also, *On the Migration of certain Birds; and on other Matters relative to the feathered Tribes.* By W. Markwick, Esq.

The observations are given in a synoptical table, with notes referring to it. It is a valuable paper, containing substantial facts, some of them very curious. Mr. Markwick wishes that observers, stationed in different parts of the kingdom, would take the trouble to notice the occurrences of this nature which happen; in which case, not only the catalogue of the British species would be most correctly ascertained, but their economy illustrated so effectually, that doubt and ignorance would no longer obscure so curious a subject. One of the notes or miscellaneous observations contains a very curious circumstance relative to two of our most common birds:

‘ *Corvus Corax—the Raven.*

‘ There seems a wonderful antipathy between this bird and the *Corvus frugilegus*, or Rook. In the year 1778, as soon as a raven had built her nest in a tree adjoining to a very numerous rookery, all the rooks immediately forsook the spot, and have not returned to build there since.

‘ At the Bishop of Chichester’s rookery at Broomham, near Hastings, in Sussex, upon a raven’s building her nest in one of the trees, all the rooks forsook the spot; but they returned to their haunt in the autumn following, and built nests there the succeeding year. When this circumstance took place, the good Bishop was very ill. The flight of the rooks (for at first the cause of it was not known) was considered by the country people as ominously portending the death of the possessor. However, his lordship happily recovered; and, in the mean time, the flight of these poor prophets was better accounted for.’

Ichthyology affords also only a single paper; which, however, will be acceptable to the lovers of that science. It is the *Description of the Stylephorus chordatus, a new Genus, by Dr. Shaw.* The extraordinary structure of this fish, which bears some distant resemblance to the genus *Syngnathus*, cannot, as Dr. Shaw observes, be easily described in words. Hence he has annexed an engraving; a coloured would perhaps have been better than a plain engraving. We recommend to comparative

anatomists the study of the economy of this fish. Mr. Menzies also gives a definition of a new fish from the Pacific Ocean.

Helminthology and Entomology occupy seven papers, viz. Mr. Marlham on certain *Moths*; with an engraving.—Mr. Curtis's *Observations on the Natural History of the Curculio Lapathi and Silphia grisea*; with an engraving. A short paper, but interesting on account of the depredations committed by the former of these insects on some of the most useful and ornamental of the willows. Mr. Curtis conjectures that the female curculio deposits her eggs under the bark, or in some crevice of the tree, 'to prevent which,' he adds, 'we cannot be too much on our guard; for if the carvæ have once entered the tree, we shall in vain seek a remedy. If the tree, therefore, sustain any injury from lopping, or from any other cause, a piece of canvas, spread over with some adhesive resinous substance, should be applied; or the nurseryman may find his account in matting over the bodies of his young trees, during June and July, when the moth comes out of his chrysalis; or perhaps brushing them over at that period with some of the new tar extracted from sea coal, may answer the purpose.'

Dr. Shaw's *Description of the Hirudo viridis, a new English Leech*—coloured engraving.

Dr. Shaw's *Description of the Cancer stagnalis of Linnaeus*. A curious and entertaining paper; but it requires to be illustrated in the perusal by the annexed engraving.

Mr. Giorna's *Account of a singular Conformation in the Wings of some Species of Moths*; in French. This paper will be found generally interesting, as it contains an account of the *use or final cause* of the conformation it describes and exhibits. Butterflies, observes the author, being destined to flutter from flower to flower in the open fields by daylight, and being provided with wings, having a very broad base, especially the lower ones, run no risk of dislocating, or violently displacing, these lower wings during their movements; and thus they are sufficiently secured against all fatal accidents of this nature: but the sphynxes and many moths, having their wings very narrow at the base, and flying about with great rapidity in the night time, and almost always among trees, or in thickets, were very liable to derange their wings, and drive the upper back over the lower, by impinging against obstacles. Such an accident, by bringing the animal down, might cause it to be drowned, or to fall a prey on the ground to some enemy. The Author of nature has therefore guarded against this inconvenience by furnishing the wings with a rein, or stay, which holds them in their place without embarrassing them in their motions.

From

From the base of the lower wing there proceeds a point directed towards the upper part of the wing; this point is longer or shorter, according to the size of the insect; it is crustaceous, hard, elastic, and designed to support the upper wing in its place; for this reason I shall call it the *spring*, or fulcrum. But this is not all; the wisdom of the Creator's design is seen still more conspicuously in a ring attached to the principal rib of the upper wing; this ring is intended to receive the above-described spring; and as it allows it to slide with facility, it keeps it in its place without restraining in the least the freedom of its movements. This second character (the ring) appears in the males only; and it is, I think, easy to assign the reason. The males fly much about, and with great velocity. They must traverse a large space in quest of the females, and are hence exposed to the dangers above suggested; the females, on the contrary, as they wait to receive the males, fly but little and sluggishly: to them this care of nature would therefore be unnecessary; and those which have the spring, have it not so long or so strong as the males: in general, in the female it consists of a packet of small filaments, joined together.—To these ingenious observations the author subjoins a catalogue of the insects he has observed with a view to the above structure, remarking that the male *sphinx populi* is the only one he has found destitute of the ring; which sphinx is very sluggish, rarely flying, and having besides his wings so large and so disposed that the lower passes beyond the upper.—These observations, he thinks, will be of the utmost service in distinguishing the sexes, which so often embarrasses the etymologist. The editor's remark, that the use, actions, and structure, of these springs had been well defined and explained by Mr. Moses Harris; but as Mr. Giorna has carried the matter further than Mr. Harris, and as it is hoped that his observations will excite others to prosecute the subject, they have published his account.

Mr. Hoy's *Account of a spinning Limax, or Slug*. In going through a plantation of Scotch firs Mr. Hoy observed something hanging from a branch of one of them, at a little distance. On approaching it, he found it to be a slug:

‘The slug was four feet below the branch from which it was suspended, and at the distance of four feet and a half from the ground; to which it was approaching gradually, at the rate of an inch in about three minutes, slower considerably than its ordinary motion, either upon the ground, or even in ascending the trunk of a tree; not so slow, however, as one would expect, if it is considered that a slug is not furnished, like the insects above mentioned, with a particular reservoir of glutinous liquid, from which the silk lines are spontaneously and almost instantaneously emitted; but that the

line, by which it descends, is drawn from that slimy, glutinous exudation gradually secreted from its pores, and covering its whole body. It seemed to require a great degree of exertion in the animal to produce a continued supply of this liquid, and to make it flow towards its tail. For this end it alternately pushed out its head, and drew it back again below its shield; turned it as far as possible, first to one side and then to the other, as if thereby to press its sides, and so to promote the secretion. This motion of the head in a horizontal direction to one side, made its whole body turn round; whereby the line by which it hung was necessarily twisted, and from being flat became round. Besides, it might perhaps tend to draw off the glutinous matter, and thus lengthen the line; which could scarcely be effected merely by the weight of the slug, although that was pretty considerable, being between sixteen and seventeen grains.

Dr. Shaw confirms Mr. Hoy's account by a similar observation.

Mr. Menzies's *Descriptions of three new Animals found in the Pacific Ocean*. Besides the new species of fish already noticed, these animals are an *Hirudo* and a *Fasciola*. They are figured.

Descriptions of two new Species of Phalæna. By Mr. Bosc, of Paris.

The botanical contributions are of all, as might be expected, the most numerous. *Descriptions of four Species of Cyrtopodium*. By R. A. Salisbury, Esq. accompanied also by engravings of the flower and parts of fructification of these elegant plants; the descriptions are in Latin.

Latin Descriptions of ten Species of Lichen, collected in the South of Europe. By Dr. Smith. Coloured engravings.

Botanical History of the Cinnamon Tree. By Dr. Swartz. Interesting to the physician as well as the botanist.

On the Festuca spodiacea and Anthoxanthum paniculatum of Linnaeus. By Dr. Smith.—Dr. Smith clears up a number of misconceptions relative to this species of grass; and these, as he says, the misconceptions of the greatest men.

History and Description of a new Species of Fucus. By Mr. Woodward; accompanied by an engraving. The species is of considerable beauty, the fructification particularly curious, and unlike that of any fucus hitherto described. The paper cannot be advantageously read without its accompanying engraving; and, like most of the other papers on botanical subjects, is little capable of abridgment or extract.

Dr. Martyn's *Observations on the Language of Botany*. We subscribe to Dr. Martyn's two propositions: 1. That we should adhere as closely as possible to the Linnean language; and, 2. That we should adapt the terminations, plurals, compounds, and derivatives, to the genius of the English. But these rules had

had been already so happily applied, in most instances at least, by Dr. Darwin in the Litchfield translations of Linnæus's works, that we confess Dr. Martyn's remarks struck us as in great measure superfluous: We wish to see an English Flora written in the same language; for botanists, we think, are pretty generally agreed that Dr. Withering's English terms are calculated only to occasion needless trouble. The beginner has them as much to learn as if they were Coptic terms.

Observations on the Genus of Begonia. By Dr. Dryander. — Sagacious and learned, as might be expected from their author; who has also the merit of having introduced into this paper several very apt and perspicuous botanical terms.

Mr. L'Heritier on the Genus of *Symplocos*.

The same on the Genus of *Calligonum*.

In these two short papers Mr. L'Heritier reduces five former genera to the two above named.

Mr. Dickson, in his *Observations on the Polypodium Oreopteris*, shews that all the English botanists have mistaken this elegant fern.

Dr. Smith, in his *Remarks on the Genus Veronica*, corrects a number of mistakes respecting synonyms.

The celebrated traveller, Professor Thunberg of Upsal, in the *Botanical History of the Genus Begonia*, delineates three, and characterises six, species of this superb genus; the three former are new, and very beautiful.

Mr. Afzelius's *History of Trifolium alpestre, medium, and pratense*, is the longest paper in the volume. It is full of exceedingly minute discussion. The author has done a great deal towards the extrication of this numerous, perplexed, and difficult genus from its former confusion. At the close of his discussion he gives a botanical description of his three species, and refers the proper synonyms to each of them.

The volume concludes with two short miscellaneous papers, viz. *An Account of Plants presented by Mr. Fairbairn and Mr. Hoy to the Society*; and *Extracts from the Minute Book of the Society*. — There are in this volume twenty engravings in all.

In this their first publication, the reader will have perceived, from the foregoing abstract, that the Society has done much towards the extension, and more towards the elucidation and correction of natural history, and particularly of botany. And, considering what vast accessions botany has received, and is daily receiving, the latter is a most necessary defensive measure. Indeed, should the vigilance of naturalists relax, ancient uncertainty will soon return, and the science relapse into a state of confusion similar to that from which Linnæus, by the invention of his admirable language, rescued it,

We are doubtful whether it be worth while to add, that the propriety of the title LINNEAN, adopted by the Society, appears to us extremely questionable. Some such title as *The Society for the Promotion of Natural History*; or, *The Natural History Society*, as it would have been called for the sake of brevity, would unquestionably be equally expressive; and perhaps more becoming a body of men whose aim is the investigation and diffusion of truth, and who formally profess to quit Linnæus wherever he has deviated from nature. Nature, therefore, and not Linnæus, being the primary object of the researches of the Society, why not rather place this primary object before the eye of the reader in the title-page? In a volume where the proportion of mineralogical and botanical papers should, as compared with the present, be reversed, Linnæus would appear very insignificant, his authority in this department of natural history being so low that no mineralogist now thinks his errors worth correcting. Besides this impropriety, the epithet LINNEAN conveys to us an idea of servile obsequiousness to authority; and although we firmly believe all undue deference to Linnæus to be foreign from the minds of our associated naturalists, we cannot help wishing that every trace of vassalage and clan-ship was obliterated from science and literature.

ART. II. *Description of the Plain of Troy; with a Map of that Region, delineated from an actual Survey. Read in French before the Royal Society of Edinburgh, by the Author, M. Chevalier, Fellow of that Society, and of the Academies of Metz, Cassel, and Rome. Translated from the Original not yet published, with Notes and Illustrations, by Andrew Dalzel, M. A. F. R. S. Edin. Professor of Greek and Principal Librarian in the University of Edinburgh. pp. 153. 4to. 10s. 6d. boards, Cadell, London, 1792.*

[Continued from our last.]

THE MONUMENTS ON THE SHORE.

PAGE 44. ‘When Alexander arrived at—the haven,’ according to what has been collected from various ancient authors by Treinshemius*, and as now translated by M. Chevalier, ‘he—proceeded into the fields, where the seat of ancient Troy was still pointed out; and there, while he was exploring with avidity the monuments of heroic achievements, an inhabitant of that place tendered to him the lyre of Paris.’ “I

* In his Supplement to Quintus Curtius.

“set no value,” said he, “upon an instrument which ministers to lasciviousness and sloth; but give me the lyre of Achilles—.” For as he was accustomed to admire Achilles, and to glory in his descent from that hero, he stripped himself, and ran with his friends quite naked round *his tomb*; he even anointed it, and adorned it with a crown. Hephæstion too crowned *the tomb of Patroclus*, as an emblem that the friendship, which subsisted between himself and Alexander, was as ardent as that which Patroclus had borne to Achilles.”—P. 47. ‘If we may believe the author of the *Pharſalia*, that warrior [Cæſar], while he was in purſuit of Pompey, penetrated into the Troad, with the deſign to examine the monuments which were to be ſeen there,

*Sigeasque petit famæ mirator arenas,
Et Simoentis aquas, et Graio nobile buſto
Rhœtion, et multum debentes vatibus umbras,*

From hence the curious victor paſſing o’er,
Admiring ſought the ſam’d Sigéan ſhore;
There might he *tombs of Grecian chiefs* behold,
Renown’d in ſacred verſe by bards of old.

Rowe.

‘Pompey’ [or, as Mr. Dalzel ſuſpects the name ſhould be, Mark Anthony, and refers to Strabo XIII. 890 al. 595] ‘carried off the ſtatue of Ajax, which adorned the temple erected near *his tomb*, and conveyed it into Egypt. Auguſtus afterwards cauſed it to be reſtored to the Trojans.’ P. 60. On the plain of Troy,’ ſays Strabo in M. Chevalier’s tranſlation, ‘we ſee exhibited the places mentioned by the poet, *the tomb of Eſſyetes*,’ &c.; p. 66, ‘The monument which is ſhewn for the *tomb of Eſſyetes*, is near the road leading to Alexandria;’ p. 64. ‘the extent of this coaſt from Rhœtéum to Sigéum and *Achilles’s tomb*, is,’ &c. ‘Rhœtéum, a town ſituate on an eminence; and near it a continued ſandy beach, beſide which is *Eiantéum*, to wit, a monument and ſhrine of *Ajax*, and a ſtatue.’ Pliny alſo notes, *we add*, near Rhœtéum *was Achilleon*, a town near the *tomb of Achilles*, built by the Mitylenjans, and rebuilt by the Athenians, *where Achilles’s ſleet was ſtationed*. At Sigéum *was alſo Eantium*, built by the Rhodians at the other horn; *Ajax being buried there*, 30 ſtadia from Sigéum, and in *the very ſtation of his ſleet*.’ Pliny at firſt places Rhœtéum for Sigéum, and Sigéum for Rhœtéum; but corrects himſelf at laſt, in fixing the tomb of Ajax *at the diſtance of 30 ſtadia from Sigéum*. Nor muſt we mind the language of Pliny here, and ſuppoſe theſe monuments to have been deſtroyed before his time. ‘Pauſanias,’ who wrote after him, *was informed by a certain Myſian*,’ notes M. Chevalier in

p. 107,

p. 107, 'that the monument of *Ajax*, on the side next the shore, 'was rendered of easy access by means of,' &c. These monuments therefore existed to the second century, known and appropriated by all the learned. 'I cannot but remark,' notes Dr. Pococke in p. 55 here, 'if I may not be thought to give 'too much into conjectures, that these [mounds or barrows] 'possibly may be very extraordinary pieces of antiquity, and the 'great one might be raised over the sepulchre of *Achilles*, as the 'other two might be on those of *Patroclus* and *Antilochus*, who 'were buried here.'—'We come between two barrows,' relates Dr. Chandler here, 'standing each in a vineyard or enclosure. One was that of *Achilles* and *Patroclus*, the other 'that of *Antilochus*, son of Nestor. We had likewise in view 'the barrow of *Ajax Telamon*; and at a distance from it, on the 'side next *Lectos*, that of *Æsyetes*.'

Having thus traced these monuments to a late period, let us observe what M. Chevalier tells us concerning them.

P. 11. Leaving Alexandria, 'I soon arrived at a vast plain, 'which I should have been tempted to take for that of Troy, if 'I had observed in it the course of any river. I then left to 'the right the villages of Dahri, of Gheiolik, and of Bos; and 'arrived at last, across a long chain of low uncultivated hills, at 'the foot of a rising ground of a conic shape, and plainly a work 'of art, which I had observed in the horizon immediately on 'my quitting the walls of Alexandria. This striking object 'attracted my whole attention, by its regular shape, its enormous size, and its height, which is not less than a hundred 'feet; and by the extent of its outline, which I found to be 'four hundred paces. I was extremely anxious to know, whether the Turks, who dwell in the neighbouring villages, were 'accustomed to give any particular name to this little mountain. My curiosity was completely satisfied, on learning that 'they considered it as the tomb of the infidels, and that they gave 'it the remarkable appellation of *Tapé* or *Tepé*, with the addition of the name of the nearest village, which is *Udjek*.'—

P. 66. This 'large monument,' just like Strabo's tomb of *Æsyetes*, 'appears in reality by the side of the road,' which now leads 'to Alexandria Troas.' P. 93. 'I have not the smallest 'hesitation then in believing, that the hillock—is a sepulchre; 'and every circumstance induces me to think, that it is the 'tomb of *Æsyetes*, a monument of the most remote antiquity, as 'it existed even before the time of the Trojan war. This 'tomb, if we may believe Homer, was of a great height; at 'least, such is the import of the epithet he gives it.' The words we produce, as essential to the argument;

Τυμωχὴ ἐκ' ΑΚΡΟΤΑΤΩ Αἰγυπιαῶ γερστος
 Δρυμενός οὐκ οὐδὲ ναῦφιν ἀφορμηθεὶς Ἀχαιοῖ.

Who from Æetes' tomb observ'd the foes,
 HIGH ON THE MOUND; from whence in prospect lay
 The fields, the tents, the navy, and the bay.

From this height, remarks M. Chevalier in p. 12, with an amazing accordance, 'at the distance of more than four leagues, I perceived the ruins of Alexandria' to the south; 'at my feet, towards the north,' or the station of the Grecian navy, 'an immense plain, encompassed with delightful hills,' &c. P. 94. 'Polites, the son of Biam—had taken his station on the top of this monument, to watch the motions of the Grecian army. He could not indeed have chosen a more advantageous station, to have a full view of the space betwixt the two capes.'

In going from this monument 'towards the village of Jeni-Chehr' at the Sigéan promontory, M. Chevalier adds, in p. 15, 'my curiosity prompted me to approach that part of the shore which is composed of rocks cut perpendicularly, of a tremendous height; 'in order to have a nearer view of *certain little hills*, which I had observed from the top of the mount at Udjek, and which appeared to me to be of the same shape with that monument. The *first* of those rising grounds which I met with on my road, is called by the Turks *Beebik Tapé*. It is not by any means so high as that at Udjek.' Nor does M. Chevalier attempt to appropriate it. But we assign it to Protefilaus, who was the first Greek that leaped on shore, and was instantly killed by a Trojan*. 'A little farther onwards, I came to *the other hillock*, which seemed to me to be of the same dimension with the former, and equally well exposed to the view of those who sail into the mouth of the Hellespont. I was not able to discover, what name the Turks gave to *this last*; but I concluded that, like many others, it is called after the village in its neighbourhood.' It lies betwixt the villages of Jeni-Keu and Jeni-Chehr, but nearest to the latter. P. 18. From the top of Jeni-Chehr promontory, 'I perceived at the foot of the promontory where I was sitting, *two little hills near to each other*, and perfectly resembling those which I had just observed—. A Greek inhabitant of Jeni-Chehr informed me, that *the most considerable of the two*, which is nearest the sea-shore, is called *Dios-Tapé*.' P. 20. Passing a river, and 'travelling for half an hour, I saw at a great distance *a mount of the same kind with all those I have already mentioned*. On approaching it, I

* Iliad, II. 701—2.

' observed

' observed a large aperture in its side, and many fragments of
 ' walls in ruins, which seemed to be the support of the fabric.
 ' I quickly entered under this vault, and eagerly explored its
 ' whole length, and likewise a cavity, in a transverse direction,
 ' which I found in it. I examined the nature of the materials,
 ' and the cement which bound them together; and was de-
 ' lighted to learn, that it still bears the interesting name of *Tapé*.
 ' This was not all. I observed, that this monument is situate
 ' at the point of a *prominence or tongue of land*, which advances
 ' into the plain [the sea] exactly opposite to the cape of *Jeni-Chehr*.
 ' What splendid conjectures then arose in my mind!'—
 P. 106. "Would to heaven," says Ulysses, when visiting the
 ' infernal regions, "that I had not been victorious over Ajax,
 ' in such a combat for the arms of Achilles; for it was on their
 ' account, that the earth covered the body of such a respected hero."
 ' In the account which Nestor gives to Telemachus, he says,
 ' *There lies the warlike Ajax, and Achilles, and the godlike*
 ' *Patroclus*, and my valiant and amiable son *Antilochus*."—
 P. 107. ' Pausanias was informed by a certain Mysian, that
 ' the monument of Ajax on the side next the shore, was ren-
 ' dered of easy access [or entrance] by means of an inundation
 ' of the sea, which had defaced it; and that an idea of the enor-
 ' mous stature of that hero might be formed, by the bones found
 ' there. *The aperture here alluded to—is still to be observed, at*
 ' *the Rhœtëan promontory—As the monument is demolished*
 ' *from top to bottom, its whole interior construction may be dis-*
 ' *cerned.*' This singular coincidence in the present monu-
 ' ment, with the account of Ajax's seventeen hundred years ago,
 ' appropriates the present at once. As to the other tombs, they
 ' are thus noticed by 'Agamemnon, in giving an account to
 ' Achilles in the infernal regions,' observes M. Chevalier, p. 144.
 We omit the Greek, and give only Pope's version:

' We then collect thy snowy bones, and place
 With wines and unguents in a golden vase,
 (The vase to Thetis Bacchus gave of old,
 And Vulcan's art enrich'd the sculptur'd gold).
 There we thy relics, great Achilles! blend
 With dear Patroclus, thy departed friend:
 In the same urn a separate space contains
 Thy next below'd, Antilochus' remains,
 Now all the sons of warlike Greece surround
 Thy destin'd tomb, and cast a mighty mound:
 High on the shore the growing hill we raise,
 That wide th' extended Hellespont surveys;
 Where all, from age to age, who pass the coast,
 May point Achilles' tomb, and hail the mighty ghost.'

The

The manner of building these tombs is remarkable. They are not, like our barrows in England, mere mounds of earth. That of Ajax 'now consists of a *vault*,' we find p. 107, 'in the form of a cross, situate about the centre of its height; and a cone of masonry, around which circular walls are erected, at a small distance from each other, and described from different centres.' Accordingly, in l. 47, "the chiefs," says Homer—of the tomb of Patroclus, "marked out the circular form of the monument, laid the foundations of it around the pile, and immediately heaped up the ductile earth." I dwell with the greatest pleasure upon this description, the particulars of which contribute so effectually towards establishing the authenticity of the antiquities of which I am speaking. "They formed the monument of a circular shape;" indeed all the tombs of the plain of Troy are of a circular shape. "They then laid the foundations." This shews that there was an internal fabric, and Homer points out its use. "They pour out loose earth upon this fabric." This earth, whose movable quality is well expressed by the term, *χελή*, ductile, or loose, 'would easily have crumbled down, and could not long have resisted the injuries of the air, if particular care had not been taken to support it by a cone of masonry.' The *fact* is certain, that these barrows *had* such a cone of masonry; but the *reason* suggested for it is not true, as, in a much rougher and wetter climate, our own barrows have stood for near two thousand years upon Salisbury plain, without any such masonry to them.

'It is a very extraordinary circumstance,' notes M. Chevalier in p. 93, 'that the Turks have preserved the same name for them, which was used by the Egyptians,' *Tapé*. 'This tradition, which I have carefully considered, has not, like many others, been transmitted by the Greeks to their conquerors. The Turks, who dwell in the most remote parts of Asia and the mountains of Caucasus, who have had no communication with the Greeks, employ the same name to express that sort of monument, and *could only have received it from the Arabians*.' Through all this, we behold learning, in one of her customary frolics, deserting the level path, running upon the sharp ridge of a mound, and losing herself in the windings of a maze. The Turks of Caucasus, who had no communication with the Greeks, could certainly have had none with the Arabians, or (as his argument required him to specify) with the Egyptians. 'A Greek inhabitant of Jeni-Chehr informed me,' he had said himself before, 'that the most considerable of the two' mounds 'is called *Dios-Tapé*.' And the adjunct of *Dios* to *Tapé* shews both to be Greek, *Διὸς Τάπος*, or the Divine Tomb.

This

This M. Chevalier found means to explore within. ‘Towards the centre of the monument,’ he tells us in p. 149, ‘two large stones were found leaning at an angle, the one against the other, and forming a sort of tent; under which was presently discovered a small statue of Minerva, seated in a chariot with four horses, and an urn of metal, filled with ashes, charcoal, and human bones. This urn, which is now in the possession of the Comte de Choiseul, is encircled in sculpture with a vine branch, from which are suspended bunches of grapes, done with exquisite art. Whether these are the ashes of Achilles, I pretend not to say.’ We think they are; and therefore consider this discovery as one of the most singularly striking that ever antiquarianism has made. ‘But most certainly they are the relics of some personage, who paid a particular veneration to Minerva; since they are accompanied with a statue of that goddess. Besides, he must have died in an age of the world, when it was the practice to burn dead bodies; since here are to be seen ashes, charcoal, and bones, still very distinguishable. When therefore I behold the urn of metal adorned with vine-branches, I own I find it very difficult to prevent myself from thinking, of that famous urn, the gift of Bacchus, and the workmanship of Vulcan, which Thetis gave to her son, and in which the Greeks deposited the ashes of their hero. But how, it will be asked, have these ashes been so long preserved? How have they resisted the inclemency of the seasons, for more than three thousand years? It may be answered, because they were not exposed to the influence of the weather. The vault, under which they were found, was covered with an immense stratum of fine sand; upon which there was spread a still thicker of clay, and over all a high hill was reared. By these means, the urn was secured against all humidity and contact with the air, which are the two great causes of dissolution.’ The production of this urn from the tomb of Achilles, looks like an operation of magic; and certainly forms, if it be what we believe it, the very urn of Achilles, the oldest and most valuable relic of antiquity that the whole world of literature can boast.

[To be concluded in our next.]

ART. III. *Discourses, chiefly on the Evidences of Natural and Revealed Religion.* By John Sturges, LL. D. Chancellor of the Diocese of Winchester, and Chaplain in Ordinary to his Majesty. pp. 454. 8vo. 6s. boards. Cadell. London, 1792.

FROM the respectable character of Dr. Sturges, as a man of learning and ingenuity, we sat down with a strong prepossession in favour of these discourses. If, exhausted as the subjects of them confessedly are, we expected nothing new in the argument, we own we looked for some degree of novelty in the combination of ideas. And though, from the gravity of the Chancellor, we indulged no hopes of being entertained by lively allusion or brilliant images; yet we opened the book in the full confidence that we should meet with just and striking sentiment, conveyed in energetic and flowing language. But we are sorry to observe, that we have been somewhat disappointed. Perhaps our expectations were too sanguine; perhaps it was disadvantageous to the author to have been viewed in the light of the polished scholar and the learned divine—the flattering medium through which we have been always accustomed to look up to Dr. Sturges. Had these discourses been the production of a person before unknown to the literary world, they would probably have introduced him to notice, if they conferred not celebrity. From the reputation, however, of Dr. Sturges they rather detract; notwithstanding the negative merit which they undoubtedly possess—that of exemption from defects or errors. Yet even this we can only say on a general view of them. We object, in several cases, to the *coldness* of our author's manner. On those topics, of which a PORTEUS treats 'with thoughts that breathe, and words that burn,' Dr. Sturges is uninteresting from his want of animation. Talking of the loss of friends, he says, 'When death comes unexpectedly and prematurely; when youth, just entering in the useful and active stage of life, is cut off; the cares of tender parents, and their fond attention during the earlier parts of it, disappointed at the time when *they* might expect to see the success of *them* in the abilities, the virtues, and the reputation, of their child; when parents themselves, attached to each other by every tie of friendship and of love, are separated, and an infant family bereft of that joint care which nature seemed to provide for *them*; we find it difficult, under the immediate impression of these evils, to reflect on *them* with any degree of composure or fortitude.' This is cold; nor is the passage remarkable for accuracy of expression. 'Observation and experience,' says Dr.

Dr. Sturges, operate, as far as they go, against our belief of a future existence; natural appearances are all against it. If we regarded nothing but what passed before our eyes; when we see the human body bereft of the powers of motion; and hastening to dissolution; when the faculties of sense and understanding with which it was furnished disappear; we should be apt too readily to conclude, that this must be the end of man.* This is the sentiment of Priestley: we have always considered it as false. They, who allow no credit to the arguments drawn from observation and experience in support of the doctrine of a future state, should be aware that, in the estimation of many, they weaken the very foundations of Christianity. Natural religion is surely the basis of revelation; remove the former—and the latter falls to the ground. And we cannot but think that the chancellor of the diocese of Winchester is guilty of a very incautious concession to the enemies of Christianity. The insipidity of the following reminds us of Soame Jenyns's remark, that 'to be good Christians will do us no kind of harm.'—'Since it is sufficiently evident that any set of men are wholly unable to form a system of religion for themselves, true in itself, and what will meet the approbation of others, it is our business to look round and inquire, whether God has not actually given us any revelation, and prohibited to us any religion, to prevent the ignorance and uncertainty to which we must otherwise be liable on a subject whose all our interests are so intimately concerned. If it should appear to us, that God has done this; if there be sufficient evidence of the great facts on which it is founded; if the doctrines delivered by it are worthy of God, answerable to the best notions we can form of his infinite and all-perfect nature; it is our duty to embrace it, and to make it the rule of our actions.' The *it* in this paragraph seems intended as a dovetail to the *them* of a former one!—But this by the bye.—In the mean time, we disclaim all intention to accuse Dr. Sturges of indifference in the cause of religion. It is his manner to which we object. Far be from us any insinuations against the sincerity of the Doctor, who speaks, we believe, from conviction, when he intimates that 'the great and leading evidences of our religion are conspicuous and striking; in the detail we meet with many particulars intricate and obscure. The way before us, is sufficiently marked out by the great features of our prospect; with these objects in our view to direct our course we cannot be at a loss, although many of the minuter parts may perhaps be rendered indistinct, or wholly withdrawn from us, by the shades of evening or the obscurity of distance*.' We have quoted this

* We cannot congratulate the Doctor on his skill in punctuation.

paragraph, partly because it exhibits an instance of figurative allusion rarely to be met with in the volume before us. In truth, we believe this pleasing metaphor is in these pages a unique: it is a hillock of verdure surrounded by one dead flat—a springing well in the midst of a sandy desert.—We have marked a few inaccuracies, such as ought not to have escaped the pen of Dr. Sturges. In p. 387 we find ‘Appendix to the *four first Discourses*.’ In p. 392, ‘without being satisfied with giving this answer, I will endeavour to give those reasonings as distinct a consideration,’ &c.

But it is painful to detect blemishes. To point out beauties is surely the more agreeable task; and many parts of the volume are unquestionably entitled to approbation. In the discourse on Universal Notions there is a chain of reasoning which is close and strong, and, we had almost said, brilliant. ‘This being allowed,’ says the Doctor, ‘that God is a wise and good being, it will follow, that those religious truths and moral duties in which mankind have almost universally agreed, must, from that universality, be true. For how can we suppose that such a being would lay the whole race of human creatures under an invincible necessity of being mistaken and deceived in things of the greatest importance to them? How is such a supposition *reconcilable* with the plainest, the most obvious perfections of the Deity? What interest can we conceive him to have in so doing? It is indeed laying them under such a necessity, if those notions, which are common to all of us, which take possession of our minds *whether we will or no*, which in most cases cannot be *dispossessed*, and if they ever are, not without struggling against what we feel *natural* to us, be not true, be not founded in the real nature and relations of things.’ A striking sentiment—but we greatly regret this strange negligence of expression. In the discourse on Religious Establishments we have many judicious observations and appropriate reflections; among which the following should not pass unnoticed: ‘To instruct men in the duties they owe to God [he should have said, ‘the duties which we owe to God’], is to exercise an office of some authority; which, however important and salutary, any thing like distress will discredit and humiliate in the eyes of the public; who are too apt to judge of things by their outward appearance, and to consider figure in the world as the best title to respect. It is, indeed, to be lamented, that any of the clergy should be in a situation in which they are not only exposed to all the domestic inconveniences attending a scanty subsistence; but also have it not in their power to command that regard, to which their office is entitled, and which is necessary to their discharging it with utility and effect.’ In

our opinion, the church must ever be deficient in dignity whilst she is disgraced by poverty on the one hand, and by luxury on the other. We unite with Burke in wishing her splendour perpetual; but we cannot with patiehee behold her distracted (like Garriek between the muses of tragedy and comedy) amidst starving curacies and pampered pluralities.

To these discourses, eighteen in number, are subjoined three articles, entitled, 'An Appendix to the four first Discourses. I. On Mr. Hume's Essay on a particular Providence and a future State. II. On Mr. Hume's Dialogues concerning Natural Religion. III. Conjectures and Reasonings of the ancient Heathens concerning a future State.' We read these three articles with attention; but discovered not a single thought, either original, or placed in a new light. The Greek and Latin notes to the last article may serve to 'make the unlearned stare.'

ART. IV. *A Treatise on Gonorrhœa Virulenta and Lues Venerea.* By Benjamin Bell, Member of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of Ireland and Edinburgh, one of the Surgeons to the Royal Infirmary, and Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. pp. 1002. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. boards. J. Watson and Co. Edinburgh; and J. Murray, London. 1793.

[Concluded from April.]

THE second volume of this work, containing the fourth chapter of his general division of the subject, is entirely appropriated to the lues venerea; and if the opinion of the author, in the introduction to the first volume, which we have already taken notice of, be well founded, viz. that gonorrhœa and lues are perfectly distinct diseases, this volume might be considered as an entirely separate work. Such being, however, the opinion of the author, and that opinion having greatly influenced the distribution and conduct of his work, we have thought it best to give a view of the two parts in this separate manner.

Like the former volume, this is divided into several sections, each of which treats on distinct parts of the subject. In the first section, containing general observations on the disease, our author takes notice, in a very cursory manner, of the opposite opinions relative to the civil history of the lues, one of which supposes it to have been imported from the new world by the followers of Columbus; while the other insists that it was incidentally known to the Jews, the Greeks, and the Romans.

Mr. Bell expresses his assent to the latter opinion; though he waves the dispute, as leading to a greater length of discussion than his limits would allow, and as a matter of curiosity more than of usefulness. In this section he enumerates the various modes by which the disease may be communicated: the chief of these is impure commerce; besides which, it may be communicated from a diseased mother to the foetus during pregnancy or parturition; by an infected child to its nurse; by a nurse to her child; to a midwife while delivering a woman that has venereal sores about the pudenda; by application of venereal matter, either accidentally or by design, to wounds or sores; and by kissing a diseased person, or by drinking after one from the same cup.

The second section contains the history of the symptoms of the disease, and is divided into fourteen subordinate sections, treating of the various individual symptoms in their ordinary course of progress, when communicated in the usual manner through venereal intercourse: these are chancres, buboes, inflammation and ulceration of the throat, ulcers in the mouth and nose, eruptions and blotches on the skin, ulcers on the surface of the body, nodes and swellings of the periosteum, bones, and tendons; excrescences about the anus, swellings of the testes, loss of the hair on the body, blindness, deafness, and, lastly, a set of anomalous symptoms, which are less regular in their progress, and appear at various stages of the disease. All of these are described with great clearness and precision; but as nothing new or remarkably interesting can be expected on this part of the subject, which has already been so often treated of by other writers, we shall pass these over, and refer the readers to the work itself, in which they will find a great deal of excellent practical remark and acute discrimination, especially in the diagnosis, or means of distinguishing several of these symptoms from similar affections that arise from very different diseases.

In the third section, which treats on the nature of the virus and its mode of influence on the system so as to produce disease, Mr. Bell very fairly acknowledges his ignorance of the nature of the poison, but enters more largely into a discussion of the manner in which it enters the system, and affects it so as to induce disease: he declares, however, that the limits he had prescribed to his work do not admit of discussing this subject so fully as its merits require. He might have added, that human knowledge is hitherto so completely ignorant of human physical nature, as not to know the very first principles on which the state of health depends; far less to decide, even with verisimilitude, on the nature of diseases, which are unknown circumstances superadded to those that are equally unknown. Medical

theories, whether physiological, or pathological, or therapeutical, may hitherto not unaptly be compared to the childish pastime of blind-man's-buff. We stagger on in devious wanderings, groping about on all hands, without being able to see a single step of the way: but as we sometimes stumble on a desirable object, though anxiously in quest of one very different, they are not altogether without use; yet it may very fairly be questioned if the good has hitherto in any degree counterbalanced the evils that have arisen from these blindfold speculations.

Mr. Bell condemns both the old humoral pathology, which considered diseases as entirely seated in the fluids, and the more recent theory, which explains all phenomena of disease, and the operation of almost every medicament, by their influence on the living solids: as if desirous of steering a more safe middle course, he declares his belief that no constitutional or general disease of the system can take place without both being affected; supposing that all diseases which arise from the influence of a specific contagion, are first induced in the fluids of the system, and that the solids only become ultimately affected in a secondary manner, by communication from the fluids. In the particular case of the contagion or infection of the lues, he contends that the virus or poison is always communicated in a fluid form; and though, on its first application, it frequently induces inflammation of the part or parts to which it is applied, he asserts that this is not a consequence essential to its nature, but is rather in some degree accidental, or connected with the peculiar irritability of the part with which it first comes into contact; since it is known frequently to enter the system without producing any inflammation or erosion. After the peculiar virus has once got into the mass of the circulating fluids, he conceives that it acts by some power analogous with that of yeast in fermentation, and assimilates a part, or perhaps ultimately the whole, of the fluids to its own nature; which assimilation may be quick or slow, according to circumstances in the animal economy, varying in different constitutions, that we are at present entirely ignorant of, and may even, perhaps, never be able to ascertain. He alleges, that while the quantity of the fluids assimilated to the morbid nature of the disease is inconsiderable, no marks of disease often ensue; and that this only takes place when the assimilation has prevailed in such quantity or proportion, as to be sufficient for exciting a morbid irritability in the living principle; that the solids are, in all stages of the disease, only so far affected, as being excited to action by the morbid state of the fluids, for the purpose of throwing off that morbid state, and that all the symptoms of the disease are to be referred to these salutary attempts of the solids. On these principles,
which

which, by the bye, do not in the smallest degree lessen the difficulties; he endeavours to account for the contagion remaining longer inactive in some instances than others: supposing that it may be modified by differences in the state of the fluids themselves, by which their assimilation may be accelerated or retarded, or by different degrees of irritability in the living principle, either in different persons, or in the same person at different times.

In this theory he finds certain difficulties, from an idea that, if this were the case, as the whole fluids are equally assimilated, the whole solids ought likewise to be affected at the same time. He endeavours to remove this difficulty by analogical comparison with other diseases, considered as generally affecting the whole system, such as the gout, but the symptoms of which are confined to local affections of particular parts. Difficulties in medical theories are easily started; and even the best-constructed hypotheses are easily overturned by ingenious opponents. Unfortunately, however, for medical science, if it yet deserves so dignified an appellation, ingenious reasoners have seldom or never been satisfied with overthrowing the hastily-conceived theories of others; but, hurried away by fondness for visionary speculation, have built as untenable theories themselves on the ruins of those which they have just destroyed, trusting to the fallacious coincidence of their reveries with a few solitary and unconnected facts. In medicine, as in many other branches of physical science, we are yet hardly arrived at the porch of the temple of nature, and before going through the necessary initiatory steps, we vainly pretend to unveil the mysteries which lie concealed in the deepest recesses of the sacred penetralia. The whole present business of physicians should be to observe, and, when facts are once ascertained, in all their multiplied and intricate relations, then philosophy may begin to reason.

The principal object of this theoretical section is to controvert the opinions of the ingenious Mr. Hunter on this part of the subject; and there can be hardly any doubt that Mr. Bell has successfully exposed the weak parts of the antagonist he has chosen to combat. But, from the very nature of the subject in dispute, we have every reason to conclude, almost *a priori*, that what he has substituted rests upon an equally unstable foundation, and must yield in its turn to the first ingenious reasoner and bold speculatist that may incline to enter the lists. As, to use almost his own words, the subject is somewhat curious, though tending scarcely at all to any degree of utility, we shall here give an abridged account of the manner in which Mr. Bell handles the controversy, which will serve at the same time to give a specimen of his style and composition:

' They who are of opinion that the cause of disease is not seated in the fluids, are under the necessity of denying, in more instances than one, what in lues venerea is well known to be matter of fact. They are obliged to say, that the blood is perfectly sound, and that neither this fluid, nor any of the secretions produced from it, are capable of communicating infection. A theory being once formed, every argument that militates against it is apt to be overlooked, while, in order to support it, facts are explained away in a manner which they will not bear. This, in some instances, may be followed by very pernicious consequences, particularly where such modes of reasoning are adopted and promulgated by authors of ingenuity and reputation; and as Mr. Hunter of London has gone farther than any other author in support of the opinion that the syphilitic virus cannot be conveyed by or affect the fluids, the following observations will relate particularly to his work *.

' We may observe,' says Mr. Hunter, ' that even the blood of a pocky person has no power of contaminating, and is not capable of giving the disease to another, even by inoculation; for if it were capable of irritating a sound sore to a venereal inflammation, no person that had this matter circulating, or had the lues venerea, could escape having a venereal sore whenever he is bled, or receives a scratch with a pin, the part so wounded turning into a chancre,' &c. Vide p. 292.—Now Mr. Hunter here assumes, as matter of fact, what is not the case; for although all wounds inflicted upon patients labouring under lues venerea do not become venereal ulcers, yet frequently, and in almost every instance of the more advanced state of the disease, they do so. I have at this time a gentleman under my care whose case affords an instance of this, where the bites of leeches applied to the scrotum on account of inflammation of one of the testes, the consequence of gonorrhœa, degenerated into venereal sores. This I informed him would not have happened from gonorrhœa alone. And upon inquiry he acknowledged, that six months ago he laboured under chancres and bubo, for which he suspected that he had not used enough of mercury, and that for a week past he had felt uneasiness in his throat, where I found, on inspection, that an ulcer had already formed on one of the tonsils.'

After thus combating the idea of Mr. Hunter, that the blood of a venereal patient can never communicate infection, he proceeds to detail some other assertions of the same gentleman, that the matter from sores, after the virus has got into the constitution, will not produce the disease, he proceeds thus:

' I cannot say what may have been the result of Mr. Hunter's experience, but I have met with many instances of buboes, or swelled glands, in the thigh, axilla, and neck; as obviously produced by sores in the feet, legs, hands, and throat, as buboes commonly are in the groin from chancres on the penis. But admitting that the

* Vide a quarto edition, published in 1785.

occurrence is not frequent, still this is no reason for supposing that the matter of these sores is not venereal. If the matter be not absorbed, no more harm will ensue from it than if it had never been formed; and in section II. of this chapter I have shewn that it is not so frequently absorbed as the matter of chancres. The reason of this I have also endeavoured to explain, by shewing that some degree of irritation is required for the purpose of exciting the absorbents to action; and as the matter of lues venerea seems to possess very little power of exciting irritation, excepting such as is produced by the primary sores of the disease, it is accordingly seldom absorbed, and still less frequently does it produce buboes; for being of a mild nature it does not so readily stimulate the lymphatics, so as to produce obstructions in the glands as it goes along.

Mr. Hunter would have found it difficult, or even impossible, to explain, consistently with his theory of the disease, a number of circumstances which we daily observe. He therefore denies that they exist; and he seems to have no difficulty in doing so, even where they are admitted by all unbiassed practitioners. In page 291 he says, 'it is also supposed that a fœtus in the womb of a pocky mother may be infected, and have the disease from her, as it were naturally interwoven with it. This I should doubt very much,' &c. And in p. 295 he says, 'it has been supposed, and asserted from observation, that ulcers in the mouths of children from a constitutional disease, which constitutional disease was supposed to be derived from the parent, produced the same disease upon the nipples of women who had been sucked by them, giving it, as it were, at the third hand; that is, the children were contaminated either by their mother's or father's having the disease in form of a lues venerea, of which I have endeavoured to shew the impossibility.'

Mr. Hunter has certainly endeavoured to shew the impossibility of this, for his system could not otherwise have had the least plausible appearance; but none, excepting such as have not had opportunities of being able to form judgments for themselves, will say that he has proved successful. If I can give credit to any fact with which I am acquainted, I must believe in this, that children may receive, and frequently do receive, the venereal disease from their parents labouring under it in a constitutional form; and that ulcers in the mouths of these children will, and frequently do, produce the same disease upon the nipples of women whom they suck. Nay, that these will give it again to other children, and these children to other nurses; circumstances which I have so frequently witnessed, so strongly marked, and followed by consequences so distressful to innocent sufferers, that I cannot help expressing astonishment that a practitioner of any experience should entertain a doubt of their existence.

Having reasoned a few pages farther nearly in the same strain, he finishes the discussion with the following paragraph:

From all that I have said, I think it will appear that the matter of contagion in lues venerea, in the first place, acts upon the blood alone; that by accumulation it comes to irritate the solids or con-

taining parts, and in this manner that effusions and consequent ulcerations are produced; that the venereal poison may remain long latent in the system; that this will depend upon the irritability of the person, as well as upon the particular state of the fluids at the time, by which they may be more or less liable to the assimilating effects of the matter of contagion; and, lastly, that there is no cause of doubt that a person with the virus in this latent state, and without any external mark of disease, will communicate the infection to others."

In the fourth section our author proceeds to consider the medicines that are proper for curing this disease, or that have been proposed at various times for that purpose. The only articles of this kind which he considers as meriting attention, are mercury, guaiac, sarsaparilla, mezereon, and opium. On the first of these he chiefly enlarges; and here too he finds occasion for controversy, particularly with the opinions of Mr. Hunter. These he attacks in a very vulnerable part, where that very ingenious and experienced practitioner endeavours to explain the antisyphilitic operation of mercury on the human body, by supposing it to induce a certain irritation, contrary to that specific morbid irritation which he supposes is produced by the venereal poison. Mr. Bell, however, finds other theories to combat in this place; such as that strange idea, that the salutary effects of mercury in curing the lues, depends entirely on its superior gravity to the diseased fluids; or that other equally extravagant supposition, that it removes the whole of the morbid fluids by means of evacuation. Against all of these absurd or whimsical fantasies Mr. Bell produces unanswerable arguments; and he cannot be accused in this place of attempting to introduce any new theory of his own in their stead, nor, properly speaking, even of endeavouring to support any hypothesis of any other person on the subject. For when he declares, 'that of all the opinions that have been advanced concerning the operation of mercury in the cure of lues venerea, that which supposes it to act as an *antidote* is liable to the least objection,' he certainly cannot be considered as advancing or supporting any theory at all; this opinion or declaration only amounts to the enunciation of a fact—it cures. And it would doubtless be well for medicine, and far better for those who are unfortunate enough to become its patients, if the language of all theories were equally allied to fact with this.

In treating of the various preparations of mercury which have been employed at different times and by different persons as antidotes against the venereal poison, he gives the preference, for internal use, to the blue pill, or mercury triturated with manna to Plenck's solution, in which it is triturated with mucilage; to calomel; and to mercurius cinereus. But his reasonings on the

the differences between these and other preparations of mercury would have been more satisfactory, if he had given some attention to the new chemistry: at least, he would not have fallen into the error of supposing mercury reduced to a *calx*. (a word, by the way, that has, on the subject of metallic powders, either no meaning at all, or conveys a very false one), when he mentions the states into which this metal is brought by trituration, by itself, or with various saccharine or mucilaginous additions, by long exposure to heat, by evaporation of the acids in which it has been dissolved, or by precipitation from these acids by means of alkalis. After the most attentive practical investigation of the subject, Mr. Bell prefers, for general use, the exhibition of mercury to the surface of the body, in the form of unction; and it is rather singular, that this should have been the mode employed at the first introduction of mercury into European practice for curing the venereal disease; so that all the ingenuity of chemists and pharmacopælogists have been, for two centuries, spent in vain attempts to improve the very earliest methods of cure. In the employment of this mode of exhibiting the antidote, or of any other that peculiar circumstances may render more advisable, he recommends a middle course, between the violent salivation of the older practitioners, and the very gentle alterative plan of many moderns; enforcing, with great propriety, the throwing in a sufficient quantity of the medicine to excite considerable soreness of the mouth, and to keep up that symptom of the salutary operation until all the symptoms are completely eradicated, and for a short time afterwards, least any small remains of the virus should lurk in the system, ready to reproduce the disease on the subsidence of the effects of the mercury, which not unfrequently happens, either when the mercurial course has been too gentle, or when it has not been persisted in long enough. For the remarks on guaiacum, sarsaparilla, mezereon, and opium, and for the more particular application of the method of cure to the disease in general, and to its various symptoms and consequences, as detailed in the succeeding sections, we must refer to the work itself, having already extended our observations to a sufficient length. This volume, as the former, has an appendix, containing all the formulæ of medicaments enumerated in this part of the work, and of some others that are employed by other practitioners in the cure of lues and its consequences; and it concludes with a copious index of the whole work.

On the whole, after the most attentive perusal, we think the work under review an excellent practical performance. It has every appearance of being the result of extensive experience and sagacious observation. Its defects, if they ought to be so considered,

considered, are chiefly to be attributed to an over-anxiety to leave nothing unsaid that might be useful; and this seems to have rendered some of the sections not so obvious at first sight, as to the practice he wishes to inculcate. This object would, perhaps, have been better attained by omitting a great deal of the theoretic controversy, and the investigation of those practices which he justly condemns, leaving only the results of his own experience to guide the judgment of the young practitioner and the medical student, to both of whom we would recommend this work as at least one of the best on the subject.

ART. V. *Sermons on various Subjects.* By William Sellon. pp. 439. 8vo. 5s. boards. Rivingtons. London, 1792.

IT appears, from a short advertisement prefixed to these Sermons, that they were never intended for the press. They are submitted, as originally composed, unaltered and uncorrected; to the public eye. They are to be regarded, therefore, merely in the light of pulpit discourses; and they are excellent specimens of pulpit eloquence. The discriminating features of sermons from the press, and sermons from the pulpit, have not been sufficiently considered; and these two sorts of composition are characteristically different. We have neither leisure nor room to explain ourselves, but by a cursory reference to authorities. To mention two living writers only—read BAGOT, but ~~hear~~ STONEHOUSE. The sermons of Bagot are heavy from the pulpit, though correct, elegant, and learned; whilst those of Stonehouse are delightfully interesting, though inaccurate and superficial.

The volume before us contains twenty-one sermons; the subjects of which we cannot be expected to particularise. We should rather present our readers with a few extracts as specimens of pulpit oratory, according to the idea we have conceived of it. In his third Sermon, *On Religious Friendship*, Mr. Sellon observes,

‘Nor is it unreasonable to suppose, that the present union of minds between worthy persons will be continued and perfected in heaven. There is nothing inconsistent in the idea, that those connexions which have been founded in innocence and virtue in *this* life, may be renewed in the *next*, and perpetuated to all eternity. With what satisfaction must we look upon our friends, while we consider them as joint heirs with us of the inheritance above; as entering with us into the mansions of heaven, and sharing with us in the glories of immortality. What joy will it be, after having passed through the gate of the grave, to be reunited to our dearest connexions? O how wonderfully

derfully great must be the transport of a pious parent to behold his dear children, for whom his heart has so often throbb'd with unspeakable anxiety, safe from the temptations of that world, of which he had so often warn'd them to beware! How will the faithful husband and wife rejoice to meet again! With what satisfaction will every just person made perfect, welcome their virtuous friends and relatives to those blessed abodes! And how delightful the thought, they meet, never to be separated—they know they shall never part more; their affections and their happiness shall never suffer any change or diminution. What refined, what exalted, what divine pleasure, must such friends enjoy! The very thought will communicate new pleasure to all our *present friendships*. To view and reflect upon friends as inheritors with us of the same blessed immortality; as persons with whom we shall unite in the regions of heavenly bliss, and live for ever, must cheer our minds in all our intercourse with them, and cause us to look upon them with the highest satisfaction and delight.

Mr. Sellon thus concludes his sixth sermon, *On the Certainty of a future State*:

‘Is it *necessary*, then, is it *reasonable*, that God should work a miracle for the conviction of men, as often as they are pleas'd to demand it? That he should draw aside the veil which separates them from the invisible world, and permit them to converse with the inhabitants of it? No: but I must tell you what *is necessary*. It is necessary that you should renounce those passions which have so long deluded you. And it is necessary, *absolutely necessary*, often to reflect on the retributions of a life to come, and to go on in the improvement of those means which God has vouchsafed for your salvation, till you experience the saving energy of faith upon your souls. In short, hear Moses and the prophets—hear Christ and his apostles—read the Bible with *attention and devotion*—and you will not want any further evidence—you will not require any new witnesses to rise from the dead.’

From the above our readers will probably concur with us in the persuasion, that ‘as these discourses seem to have proceeded from the heart of the speaker, so they never failed to reach the hearts of his auditors.’

ART. VI. *Transactions of the Society of the Antiquaries of Scotland. Volume 1.* pp. 570. 4to. 11. 1s. boards. Creech, Edinburgh. 1792.

THE antiquarian spirit of Scotland has been much later in its operation, than that of England. When the latter produced a society so early as 1707, the former could not till 1780. ‘Far from the sun and summer’s gale,’ Scotland was so much later

later than England, in this kind of literary vegetation. And she now comes forward with her quarto volume of transactions, in imitation of her more forward sister. We wish her all success, and shall be happy to do her all service. We consider her as a kind of infant Hercules, struggling in the cradle to shew the vigour of his nature, and to begin his course of fame.

In this commencing volume we have first an historical account of the Society, by Mr. William Smellie; the statutes of the Society; the bye-laws of it; a chronological list of the members, ordinary, honorary, and correspondent, &c. in which we strangely find a 'superintendent of natural history, Mr. William Smellie,' for a society of antiquaries; and a list of the present officers.

An Inquiry into the Origin of the Name of the Scottish Nation. Colinton [Sir James Foulis, of Colinton, Bart.]

This essayist says, that 'the conjectures of the author of the history of Manchester seem to require a more particular consideration, as he has investigated British antiquities with great acuteness and ability, and has marked out, in part, why the Scots were called by that name.' He then attempts to refute Mr. Whitaker. But his mode of reasoning is so poor and feeble, that it can refute nothing. Yet the weak weapon of Priam shall tinkle upon the buckler of Pyrrhus, without provoking any return from us. We have even that *crambe re-cocta* of Scottish antiquarianism, which would make the *Ierne* of the ancients stand for *Strathern*; all served up again, without any new reasoning, and to the high offence of our literary stomachs.

An Inquiry into the Beverage of the ancient Caledonians, and other northern Nations, at their Feasts; and of their drinking Vessels. Colinton.

This essay is superior to the former, and deserves a more particular attention. Yet we encounter this specimen of false grammar, near the beginning of it: 'a simple race, whose principal care was herds and flocks; their dainties were procured by hunting, and their ordinary drink must have been water, which was supplied by every fountain or stream, or milk, which was procured by little labour.' This is a complete sentence,

In seipso totus teres atque rotundus.

Yet the irregularity of it is so gross, as is a disgrace equally to the writer and to the Society. Nor can we, as in *republica censoria censores morum*, in duty refrain from reprobating such vulgar

vulgar offences against propriety. But let us pass to the author's arguments.

'So we may be convinced,' he remarks in a conclusion that is *drawn* indeed from his premises, but drawn only by a cart-ropé, 'that the highlanders of those days had not wine—; nor is it probable *they had any distilled liquors*, because we cannot find any mention of such a thing among them *till the reign of James V.*' Here the author is as rash as he is heavy, uniting the two opposite qualities of bad writing with a malignant animosity in himself. James the Vth began his reign in September 1513; and Boetius, who in his preface dates his history in 1526, only thirteen years later, says the Scots *formerly used usquebaugh*, and made it *as they now make it!* *

Authors, before they write, should read.

'What is Gaelic for the Latin word *bibo*? The answer is, we have several words for it, but the common and most proper is, *ol elmi*, I drink. I inquire no farther. I have already found out what was the favourite liquor. In the ancient Gothic, *ol* was the word to express ale. Hence *I make no doubt* that they [the ancient Scots] learned both the *liquor* and the *name* from the Scandinavians, and that *it was in high repute*; and *used even at royal feasts*.' We have produced this as one specimen of the mode in which antiquaries reason. The word, in which the sagacity of this author detects the original liquor of the country, is merely *olaim*, to drink; and, if it indicated any liquor, should naturally have indicated that which we are sure was the primary beverage of every country, water. But it carries no reference to liquor at all, and expresses only the act of drinking. Thus *oleach* is soaking, *olachan* is immoderate drinking, *olach* is given to drunkenness, and *teach an ola*, or *teach an oil*, is a tippling-house. And, if there could be any degrees of rationality in what is totally ir-rational, Sir James might more rationally have inferred the Scots drank *oyl*; because *ola* is *oyl* in the very language of the Scots themselves. But it appears astonishing to us, that Sir James should beat about for the original liquor of Scotland, in the thick covert of his own etymologies; when the very liquor that he wants appears in open day, and carries an appropriate name with it, upon the very language which he is consulting. 'On all festival occasions,' as Mr. Whitaker has observed long ago concerning all the Britons, 'they drank what was then denominated *curni*, and is now called *curnu* by the Welch, and ale by the English †.—'The natives of Spain,' adds Mr. Whitaker, referring to his authors,

* Fol. 11. edit. 1575.

† Hist. of Manchester, l. 276. 8vo.

'the

‘the inhabitants of France, and the *aborigines* of Britain, all used an infusion of barley for their ordinary liquor;—called by the various names of *colia* and *seria* in the first country, *vervifa* in the second, and *curmi* in the last, all literally importing only the strong water*.’ But, to come more closely to Sir James’s own *Scots*, Mr. Whitaker has found ale in the very *poems of Ossian*, and under its own British appellation. ‘Speaking of cups studded with gems, the translation says: thus: “The blue water trembles on their stars, and seems to be sparkling wine.” This proves the Caledonians to have been acquainted with wine,’ in direct refutation of Sir James’s conclusion above, ‘but to have generally drunk a very different liquor. What idea, however, the ingenious translator annexed to the words *blue water*, it is not easy to conceive. *Curmi*, the British word for ale, may signify also blue water’ by an analysis. And *curme* is now the *highland* word for a great feast; as *cúirm* is the Irish one for a drinking-bout, or a banquet, and so shews us the radical idea of the other. ‘*This*, therefore, I take it for granted, was the word in the original.’ And we can carry this conjecture into certainty, having ourselves examined the Erse manuscript of the poem in the possession of Mr. Macpherson, and found the word to be actually *curmi*. This therefore puts an end to all the wild dreams, of a Scandinavian origin for ale; and of men only learning to talk of drinking, when they came to drink ale.

‘As some may doubt,’ adds Sir James, ‘of the validity of proofs drawn from the use of words, it may not be amiss to mention the following note; I took it from Baron La Hontan’s account of North America; in a vocabulary of the Algonkin language, he has the word *quscomebi*, which he explains to mean *drunk*, a *fool*. Though I have copied the word exactly as it was written by a French pen, from the mouth of an American savage; can any one doubt that some Scot or Hibernian has formerly been among them, and taught them the use of *usquabauch*, and the consequences of drinking above a certain quantity?’ This argument carries very much the aspect of a traitor in its face; and seems intended to betray the cause, in support of which it is adduced. But it is brought forward in serious sadness of reasoning, as appears from the assurance of its *indubitable* power, and from the general heaviness of march in the mind of the author. Yet it actually renders the former argument ridiculous. Who can believe the highlanders to have had ale from the Scandinavians, because *those* use *clain* to signify drinking, and *these* know ale by the name of *ol*; when he finds the

Algonkins of North-America inferred to have the use of usquebaugh among them, and to have it from the Irish or highlanders, because—they call a drunkard and a fool *ouscoumbi*?

Ridiculum acri

Pleniùs ac meliùs plerumque secat res.

But we have not yet done with our author. Here let me observe, that from *eigh*, an Erse word, which at full length is *eighim*, and signifies to cry out, to grieve, to lament, or to bawl, comes the word *echo*, so common in many languages. A true, staunch etymologist from the Celtick, seems to take an *oblivious draught* before he enters on his operations; and to forget there is any other language in the world, besides the Celtick. The third utensil for drinking is the *cuach*, which is a cup or bowl; which we now pronounce *queach*, and from whence is formed the English word to *quaff*. Sir James had forgotten the Greek language before, he now forgets the French; both being sunk for ever in the 'multitudinous sea' of the Erse. If readers should complain that this treatise is neither so instructive nor so entertaining as they would wish it to be, the writer must acknowledge to his own shame, that the deficiency lies in himself, as the most malicious critic cannot accuse him of having chosen a dry subject.

Thus gentle dulness ever loves a joke.

Of the League said to have been formed between the Emperor Charlemagne and the King of Scotland. Colinton.

In 1773 Sir David Dalrymple attacked this league with reasoning, with wit, with sarcasticalness. Lord Elbank replied in the very same year, and contended that the main, essential point of all, the existence of the league, was proved by the contemporary evidence of Eginhart †. In truth, Sir David flubbed over this convincing testimony for the *substantial* point of the whole, in objections against the *formal* parts of it, as *understood by the Scotch*. 'I will not here enter,' says Sir James, 'into the arguments alledged on either side, but only lay before the Society an observation I made on reading the history of those times, and which seems to have escaped the observation of all,' Sibbald, Abercrombie, Goodall, &c. 'who have written upon that subject. To the account of the league is added, that the King of Scotland sent his brother William with four thousand men to serve under Charlemagne. This

* Remarks on the History of Scotland, I—39.

† A Letter to Sir David Dalrymple, 5—13.

' very name, *William*, made me look on the whole as an idle
 ' story, the inconsistency of which confuted itself. *William* is
 ' our way of contracting two Saxon words, *gild beaume*. These
 ' signify a *gilded helm*, which was an honourable distinction, and
 ' like an order of knighthood among the Saxons. Now, it
 ' seemed highly improbable that a prince of Scotland should
 ' have a Saxon name or title, in the beginning of the ninth cen-
 ' tury; and that matters happened so oddly, that this very
 ' prince, with the honours of Saxony in his name or title, should
 ' be picked out to serve the Emperor, who made war on the
 ' Saxons for twenty years.' Whatever we may think of the
 derivation of *William* from *gild beaume*, which is taken without
 acknowledgment from Verstegan *, and has been superseded in
 Camden's Remains by one far more probable, *Wilhelm*, or
Much Defence †; the remark is acute and novel. Had Sir David
 lighted upon it, he would have turned it in various forms of
 sportive objection to the whole. And how then does Sir James
 lay the ghost that he has thus raised? In a manner equally
 acute. ' On reading Fordun's account of the matter, I could
 ' not help concluding that the prince's name was *Gilmor*. For-
 ' dun, not understanding the meaning of the name, gives us se-
 ' veral, of which the first is *Gilmerus*; and goes on running
 ' changes upon that word, such as *Gilermus*, *Gilermimus*, &c.
 ' till at last he comes to *Gulielmus*, and rests there as if that
 ' were the true one; as it was a name that had become familiar
 ' and been rendered domestic, in his time. Later writers, as
 ' ignorant of the Gaelic as himself, have copied the name *Wil-*
 ' *liam* from him; and, by this one error, deface and disgrace the
 ' annals of their country. I was confirmed in my opinion by
 ' what Fordun, in another place, tells of a king of France
 ' (which story he must have had from some French writer or
 ' relater); who, speaking of the brave leaders that had served
 ' under Charlemagne, among others mentions the *Scoti Gilli-*
 ' *more*. Fordun's having hit twice so nearly on the true name,
 ' which it is plain he did not understand, convinces me that he
 ' had taken his account of the fact from proper vouchers.' But
 how does Sir James prove *this* to be an *Erse* name? ' *Gille*
 ' means a lad; or, in composition, *Gil-Mor*, literally translated,
 ' signifies no more than the Great Lad: but in those days, be-
 ' fore foreign titles of honour were introduced, must have been
 ' specially applied to the king's son or brother; exactly in the
 ' same way as *Monsieur* in France, or *Infant* in Spain. Our
 ' highlanders, to express their particular chiefs, insert the name
 ' of the clan thus, *Clan Chattan Mor*, &c. ' I have seen

* P. 272—273.

† P. 90.

' several

‘several Irish pieces, in which their national saint, to whom perhaps more than regal honours were paid, is devoutly addressed by the epithet [Sir James means the appellation.] of ‘Gille.’ All this, in our opinion, is judicious and just; and we are happy to pay Sir James the parting compliment of saying so. But when Sir James adds, that ‘there is still to be found in Scotland the surname of Mac-Gillemon;’ and that, ‘by the various vicissitudes that time produces, the few that now bear that surname are reduced to the lowest rank of life:’ he forgets that *Gilly* is now the constant term in the highlands for a servant; that every highland chief has his *Gilli-cassue* to carry him over the fords when he walks, his *Gilli-comstraine* to lead his horse in bad ways when he rides, and his *Gilli-trush-anarnish* to bring his baggage after him; that he has particularly his *Gilli-more* to bear his broadsword*; and that therefore *Mac-Gillimer*, or son of the broad-sword bearer, must naturally be a name for some in an *un-reduced*, yet *low*, rank of life. And when he subjoins at the close, that ‘there was a native of the British isles, greatly esteemed by the Emperor Charlemagne,’ who ‘had several names, but is most known by that of Alcuinus Albinus;’ and that, ‘set aside the Latin termination *us*, and there remains Alcuin Albin, which, translated into modern English, is literally Alcuin, a Scotch highlander:’ he falls into the fond puerility of error, which Sir David has already noted as given up even by Dr. Mackenzie himself†; and is struggling vainly with his little coracle of etymology against the sweeping torrent of historical testimony. Alcuin himself expressly tells us, he was born at York, in these lines of his poem on the pontiffs and saints of that city:

*Patriæ quoniam mens dicere laudes,
Et veteres cunas properat-proferre perumper,
Euboricæ gratis præclaræ versibus urbis ‡,*

[*To be continued.*]

* Birt’s Letters from Scotland, II. 158.

† Remarks, 24.

‡ Gale’s Hist. Script. XV. 1. 703.

ART. VII. *An Essay on the Disease produced by the Bite of a Mad Dog, or other Rabid Animal.* By James Mease, M.D. of Philadelphia. With a Preface and Appendix by J. C. Lettson, M.D. F. R. S. &c. pp. 179. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Philadelphia, printed: London, reprinted for Dilly. 1793.

THIS essay, it appears, was transmitted to Dr. Lettson by his friend Dr. Rush, with permission from the author, a young gentleman of abilities, to dispose of the performance in any manner he might deem most conducive to public good. Dr. Lettson has therefore, with great propriety, caused it to be reprinted in this country, and has accompanied it with some useful observations, which shall afterwards be mentioned.

The author sets out with giving a history of the disease produced by the bite of a rabid animal; and first refutes the idea of a real and idiopathic hydrophobia arising in the human body, without the action of contagion. He observes, from a consideration of the variety of the symptoms, and the strong manner in which they are marked, a probable conjecture might be formed that great information, respecting the pathology of the disease, would be obtained from the dissection of the bodies of those who had died of it. Numerous histories of the appearances after death have accordingly been related by different authors; but, on account of their want of uniformity, and the circumstance of their all being the consequence, and no ways connected with the cause of the disease, it is impossible to draw any determinate conclusions from them.

The author next proceeds to investigate the particular symptoms of the disease, among which he endeavours to establish a satisfactory solution of the hydrophobia:

‘The idea generally entertained by authors respecting this symptom,’ says he, ‘is, that it is owing to some change induced in the system, from the action of the poison on it, whereby a *specific dread* of fluids is induced, independent of every other cause. But I hope I shall clearly prove, that it is entirely owing to an affection of the throat, from whose morbid sensibility, and the inability of swallowing, together with the pain excited, this symptom seems wholly to originate.

Salus Diverfus, indeed, was the first who disbelieved this doctrine, and came nearer the truth than any of his predecessors, by referring the aversion from drinking to the circumstance of the patients finding themselves worse after taking any fluid. Dr. Whytt likewise entertained a similar opinion; for he observes, that ‘the hydrophobia is only a violent convulsion of the gullet and stomach, arising from the disagreeable sensation excited by the liquid touching the fauces.’

But neither of these explanations is satisfactory: the former does not inform us of the ultimate cause of the sick being rendered worse by swallowing liquids; and the latter, by the above quotation, and in other parts of his work, resolves it into the specific stimulus of water on the throat.

The explanation, therefore, that I would propose of this symptom is as follows: in consequence of the action of the poison on the nerves of the body, as before mentioned, a morbid and excessive degree of sensibility is induced, whereby the action of the slightest stimuli produces the most disagreeable effects. The fauces also, particularly the muscles employed in deglutition, partake of this general morbid state: as soon, therefore, as any liquid touches them, they are seized with spasmodic affections, which consequently excite pain; in the very irritable state of the parts, this pain becomes extreme; on a second attempt, therefore, to drink, or a mere mention being made of it, the idea of the patient's former sufferings will be immediately excited, and consequently he will refuse it with disgust.

The author justly argues, that if the aversion to drinking, most commonly shewn by those persons who labour under the effects of the canine poison, were owing to the poison simply, and some specific change wrought on the system, the total absence of the affection of the throat, in some cases, and its abatement in others, ought not to make the least alteration in this generally supposed pathognomonic symptom; for the poison being still in the system, its effects should continue, without either intermission or variation. In support of this argument it is observed, that the patients themselves, who are most commonly possessed of their senses, and are capable of returning answers to questions proposed to them, constantly refer the whole cause of their disgust to fluids to the difficulty in swallowing.

Dr. Mease afterwards treats of the symptoms of madness in dogs, and the remote causes of canine madness; with the remote causes of the disease in man, and its proximate cause. On each of these heads many observations are adduced from other writers; and we meet with a series of ingenious reasoning which does honour to the author's abilities. After taking a comprehensive view of the subject, he ascribes the origin of the disease to a general relaxation of the nervous system; founding this opinion upon a remark that the production of the disease seems to be favoured, and its power increased, by the existence of debility, whether it be *natural*, and dependent on peculiarity of organisation, or *acquired* by the application of debilitating causes.

The method of cure is likewise investigated by the author with equal precision. From the evidence of facts and observations, he is fully convinced of the inutility of the most applauded remedies which have hitherto been recommended to the public.

As he recites no cases of the disease which have come under his own inspection, it is sufficient for us to observe, that he makes many judicious remarks on the modes of cure, either suggested or adopted by former writers on the subject; and he expresses an opinion that mercury has never yet been properly exhibited.

The appendix to this ingenious essay, and which is furnished by Dr. Lettsom, contains many valuable additions relative to the cure of the disease consequent to the bite of a mad dog, by several eminent practitioners; but we shall only lay before our readers what is advanced in an advertisement prefixed to the essay, by the Doctor himself, who, besides having been favoured with those communications, appears to have reflected on the subject with his usual judgment and attention:

‘ Were a person recently bitten by a mad dog to come under my care, I should immediately order the part bitten to be carefully washed with cold water, as recommended by Dr. Haygarth (Appendix, p. 150, and by Dr. Percival, p. 153), or by means of a syringe, frequently and forcibly wash and clean the wound with cold water, for at least some hours; and then, were the operation not hazardous to life, cut out all the wounded flesh, and keep up a discharge from the part as long as possible. Should this plan have been neglected soon after the melancholy accident of the bite, the moment the practitioner is informed of it, even were it several weeks or months afterwards, the hydrophobic symptoms not having supervened, cutting the part out that had been bitten should even then be insisted on. If, from timidity, or any other cause, the patient should object to the knife, a caustic or cautery must be substituted; or even scarification and cupping, if the other means are objected to; at the same time, the Peruvian bark should be freely given internally, for at least one week, and repeated again as long, after every interval of one week, for some months. In these intervals the patient might take steel or any other tonic; or, what I should deem preferable, use the cold bath every other morning; and, where it can be procured, the sea bath. Indeed, upon no consideration whatever should cold bathing be neglected, which, to the most timid and delicate, may be applied in one form or other.

‘ If, after all these means have been in vain attempted, or under whatever circumstances it may happen, that the hydrophobia should supervene, I know of no mode to be pursued so likely to ensure success, as the external and internal use of sweet oil, as recommended by Dr. Shadwell; or, what may be full as well, to give oil internally, and to anoint the body with mercurial ointment, in such a free manner as to produce, if possible, a ptyalism.’

We cannot conclude without recommending this production to the notice of our medical readers.

ART. VIII. *The History of France, from the earliest Times to the present important Era. From the French of Velly, Villard, &c. &c. With Notes, critical and explanatory, by John Gifford, Esq.* pp. 1240. 4to. 2 vols. 2l. 2s. boards. Lowndes. London, 1791.

FRANCE is justly considered, by every man of intelligence and impartiality, as at least equal to the first, if not actually the first kingdom of Europe. Its situation is peculiarly favourable: its extent displays a magnitude of which few of the European kingdoms can boast; its compactness gives it a preeminence over those that might claim an equality of extent; its means of defence from foreign enemies, do, in the judgment of military men, far exceed those of all its neighbours; its productions are valuable and numerous; the Atlantic and Mediterranean, which wash its shores, furnish channels of communication with distant countries; and the number of its inhabitants far exceeds the population of every other country in the same quarter of the world. On these accounts the history of such a kingdom as France must be both instructive and valuable. But it has other claims to our notice. The events to which that country has given birth; the wars that she has carried on with all the nations around; the vigorous exertions that she has frequently made; and the influence that her politics have had on the whole European system; are such as must deeply engage the attention of every contemplative mind. Nor, if we consider its effects, is it to be regarded as a trifling matter, that France has long taken the lead in manners and fashions; and has had the address to give the *ton* to all the nations of Christendom, and to induce them to copy her maxims and modes. To Englishmen the history of France claims the preference to that of every foreign country, both on account of the constant rivalry which has subsisted between the two nations, and because its history is so interwoven with our own. In addition to all these causes, the changes which have lately taken place in that country, and those events of the first magnitude in the history of civil society, which have astonished every man of science and reflection in Europe, make the history of France at this time a subject of peculiar interest and attention. Many will now read it with avidity, who never before considered it as an object of sufficient consequence. Of course a well-written French history, blending together entertainment and instruction, will be an acceptable present to the reading part of the community; and at the same time will amply reward the labours of the author. Among other competitors that have appeared,

Mr. Gifford enters the lists, and lays down at the feet of the public two quarto volumes, containing a part of the history of France. His designs, plan, sources of materials, authorities, &c. we shall allow him to deliver in his own words:

‘ In the present history we mean to give not merely the annals of the different sovereigns, but those of the nation they governed; to join the names of such heroes as have extended the limits of their country, with those of such men of superior genius as have enlightened the understanding; in short, it is our intention to give an impartial account of its victories and conquests, and an ample and interesting detail of its manners, its laws, and its customs.

‘ The attention bestowed on each particular object will be proportioned to the degree of amusement or instruction which it is capable of affording: we shall be careful, however, to notice the commencement of all singular and curious customs; the principles of the constitution; the true sources and various foundations of the laws; the origin of particular dignities; the institution of the parliaments; the establishment of universities; the foundation of orders, religious and military; and every discovery in the arts and sciences which has proved of use to society.

‘ In short, we may safely affirm, that nothing will be neglected that can render the work interesting to the public; every fact will be accompanied by its principal circumstances, and not any thing will be advanced but on the most unquestionable authority.

‘ The Abbé Velly and his learned coadjutors, indisputably the best of all the French historians, we have chosen as our principal guides; but in the course of our labours we shall not fail to profit by the assistance of other eminent writers; and particularly by those various elucidations and explanatory comments, to which the newly-established liberty of the press has given birth. Independent of these essential advantages, which no historian has hitherto enjoyed, the continuation of our work to an era that is pregnant with the most important consequences, will render it the only complete and perfect history of France that exists, either in our own or in any other language.

These are big promises, but that Mr. Gifford will be allowed the credit of performing them, we very much doubt. It is our wish that our readers may have an opportunity of judging for themselves of the manner of its execution: we shall therefore, by way of extract, give the character he has drawn of the first kings of the three different families that have governed France; just observing, that, in the drawing of characters, modern historians have usually summoned up all their genius, and exerted the utmost efforts of their skill in composition.

Concerning Clovis, the first Christian king of the Merovingean, or first race of the kings of France, he speaks thus:

‘ It has been a subject of dispute with historians, whether the military or political talents of this prince were the most eminent. Gaul subdued by his arms, and preserved by his prudence, affords a proof that he was equally skilful in the cabinet, and formidable in the field. Such a tribute of admiration as a continued series of victory may command, is certainly due to his conduct at the commencement of his reign; but it is not success alone that can secure the commendation of an historian; it is his duty to weigh with candour and impartiality the motives that influence a monarch when he engages in a war that terminates in conquest; and such an investigation induces us to condemn what has hitherto been considered as a theme of applause in the life of Clovis, who was certainly actuated by ambition, and a culpable desire of extending his dominions, in most of his contests with the neighbouring monarchs; and when thus urged he alike despised the principles of justice, and the dictates of humanity. If then we are compelled, from these considerations, to withhold that praise which has been too profusely bestowed on the former part of his reign, what terms of censure sufficiently strong can we employ to mark our detestation of its conclusion, which exhibits a disgusting scene of violence and cruelty? His injustice and barbarity are unfortunately but too conspicuous; and his conduct in particular to the princes his kinsmen, sinks the hero in the usurper.’

During the space of two hundred and seventy years the family of Clovis swayed the sceptre. Pepin, having deposed Childeric the last of them, ascended the throne, and introduced the Carlovingian dynasty. His character is thus drawn:

‘ Pepin possessed great martial abilities, and great political talents; hence his skill and success were equal in the cabinet and the field. Under his auspices France attained that strength and consequence which enabled his son to pursue his triumphant career of greatness. But amidst the splendour of his virtues, his vices and defects have been totally forgotten—not one of his biographers has, in the delineation of his character, noticed the assassination of Theobald, son of Gremould; the despotic authority which he displayed over his lawful sovereign; the violation of his oath, in deposing Childeric, and taking possession of the throne; or the tyrannical confinement of his brother Carloman in a convent. These are weighty defects, and, though opposed by many great and glorious actions, are surely sufficient not only to preclude indiscriminate commendation, but to command a considerable degree of censure.’

After filling the throne of France for 236 years, the illustrious race of the Carlovingians ceased to reign. It had been divided into three branches, who ruled over three separate kingdoms, Italy, Germany, and France. *It is remarkable that the last monarch of each branch was named Lewis.* On the death of Lewis, the fifth of the name in France, Hugh Capet, to the exclusion of the lawful heir, assumed the regal dignity.

The history before us delineates his character in the following manner :

' A mistaken spirit of delicacy, founded on respect to the reigning family, has induced the generality of the French historians to *smother* the usurpation of Hugh Capet, and to exaggerate his virtues; as if the former could invalidate his title, or the latter enhance the reputation of his descendants. Even the Abbé Velly, whose spirit and good sense mostly rise superior to the little arts of adulation, and lead him to exert the dignified privilege of an historian, to enforce truth without regard to rank, has, in this instance, condescended to sanction by his authority the general prejudices. Though he seems to deviate from veracity, yet has he deigned to palliate a fact by observing, that ' in that age Hugh was *perhaps* considered as an usurper.' That his accession to the throne of France was marked with the most glaring and indelible marks of usurpation, who is there will dare to deny? To the crown he could have no possible claim by *descent*; and with regard to *election*, he dissolved by force that parliament which had met for the purpose of conferring it on the lawful heir. Hugh Capet was therefore an *usurper* in every sense of the word; but that he swayed the sceptre he had thus acquired, with dignity, justice, and moderation, is equally certain. From the moment he associated his son to the regal authority, he abstained himself from the use of the ensigns of royalty; and, as a modern writer has justly observed, if some praise be due to the greatness of mind which scorned the pagantry of power, more will always be ascribed to the clemency of a prince who transferred to his family a crown unstained with blood, and who, in an age of violence, preserved the reputation of unblemished humanity.

Such was the progenitor of a race of monarchs who for eight centuries exercised the regal authority in France. A late melancholy transaction, which drew tears of compassion from every eye, and excited in the breasts of kings feelings that persons in inferior stations cannot conceive, has, for a time at least, wrested the sceptre from their hands; and the Convention, imitating the conduct of Hugh Capet to the Carlovigian race, has reduced the remains of his family to a private station.

Mr. Gifford's history contains an immense fund of information; but it seems rather a history to be occasionally consulted for particular events, than a history to be read through with pleasure and improvement. Great skill is requisite in order to attain the best historical method, and not to extend the work beyond a proper size. In both these respects we think Mr. Gifford is deficient.

We disapprove of the form or method of his work. It is written in the way of annals, and moves on soberly and regularly through the signs of the zodiac, embracing a variety of unconnected subjects within the year. Persons who record the events

events of their own age, and carry on their narration from month to month, and from year to year, may be allowed the form of annals; and their works may meet with great acceptance from the public. Writings of this kind have indeed one peculiar excellence to boast of, that the events were marked down at the time they happened, while they were fresh in the memory and affected the mind; and a great variety of concomitant circumstances were added, which, if not immediately committed to writing, would have been irrecoverably lost. In this shape we may justly say of them, 'here are valuable materials for the use of the historian.' Accordingly authors of eminence consult these authentic documents, extract the parts that suit their purpose, and, dragging them from their chaotic state, reduce them into a beautiful form and order. Thus does a Hume refine and polish the materials of a Strype or a Speed. But when an author presents us, in the form of annals, with the account of transactions which took place a thousand years ago, we cannot approve of his mode of writing. He may indulge his love of ease; but instead of a superb edifice, completed with elegance and strength, we see nothing but heaps of stones, timber, &c. lying around in disorder and confusion. Should it be said, that the old French historians, from whom he literally copies, and whom, in many instances, he servilely translates, wrote in this form; we have only to reply, that the time when they wrote, although it may furnish a sufficient apology for them, furnishes none for Mr. Gifford.

Another fault that we find with this book is its prolixity. Here are two quarto volumes, more closely printed than usual, and yet the history is not brought down below the year 1450. In the history of our own country, we may be inclined to examine every thing with some degree of attention and minuteness; but that is not the case with respect to the affairs of a foreign nation. If it be found that the bulk of readers have not patience to peruse a full history of England, much less will they give heed to that of France. It was well observed by Milton, that many of the battles of the old Saxons were of as little importance to be known, as the skirmishes of kites and crows. In the same light we regard a great number of the events which Mr. Gifford details from the French historians: we might have remained ignorant of them without loss. The history that we want for general use is one that will delineate the principal events, and point out their influence on the state of the kingdom; that will describe the great and important changes which took place, with their causes and effects; that will draw a just character of the different monarchs; and describe with justness and precision the manners, sentiments, and improvements, of every

every succeeding age. Of a very prolix work, which does not omit the minutest circumstance on record, we do not perceive the utility. Those who wish to enter deeply into the history of France cannot find satisfaction from Mr. Gifford, for he seldom quotes his authorities; they must therefore be obliged from necessity, as indeed they will be inclined from choice, to pursue their researches in the original writers.

The work is enriched with many pretty good engravings of the kings of France, &c.

ART. IX. *Principles of Moral and Political Science; being chiefly a Retrospect of Lectures delivered in the College of Edinburgh.* By Adam Ferguson, LL. D. and F. R. S. Ed. late Professor of Moral Philosophy. pp. 863. 4to. 2 vols. 1l. 16s. boards. Edinburgh: printed for Cadell, London. 1792.

[*Concluded from our last.*]

DR. Ferguson opens the second part of his work by observing, that the specific principle of moral science is some general expression of what is good and fit to determine the choice of moral agents in the detail of their conduct. He remarks that

‘ The terms in common use under which we distinguish the subjects of desire and aversion, are chiefly *pleasure and pain, beauty and deformity, excellence and defect, virtue and vice, prosperity and adversity*; or, in a form more comprehensive, and arising from the distribution of these, *happiness and misery*. Under one or other of these titles we shall probably find every constituent of good or of evil; and, in following the track of ordinary experience or reason, arrive at a final decision of what is best for mankind, and establish a principle of estimation and choice, upon which to determine every question of right or propriety relating to the affairs of men.’

Under the title of pleasure or pain may be included pleasures and pains of mere sense, of affection and passion, of active exertion and conduct. The perceptions of beauty and deformity, of excellence and defect, are the result of the reflex and censorial powers in man. Disgust, indignation, remorse, and shame, are among the pains of which they render us susceptible; delight, esteem, approbation, confidence, love, and peace of mind and of conscience, are among their gratifications, or happy effects. To fill up the part to which man from his nature is destined, are required, skill, discernment, fit disposition, application, and force; hence the four cardinal virtues, wisdom, justice, temperance, and fortitude. To the title of prosperity and adversity, or the gifts and privations of fortune, may be referred health,

health, strength, birth, riches, and whatever else may be supposed to constitute the difference of situation or rank in society. Happiness, whatever be its cause, is itself an attribute of the mind; and a person, when said to be happy, can justify this assertion only in proportion as his enjoyments are habitual, lasting, and conceived to be secure. The chapter is concluded by two sections, which treat of the actual measures and sources of good and evil in human life, and may be considered as a commentary on the text of Antoninus and Epictetus, and worthy of equal attention with the writings of those illustrious philosophers.

In treating on the fundamental law of morality, if we endeavour to reduce the various enumeration of qualities to some one general principle, we should be limited in our choice, either to wisdom or goodness. And as benevolence may, in some degree, be considered as a principle of wisdom, fortitude, and temperance, it may be safely assumed as the fundamental object of moral law. This theory is similar to that of Dr. Hutcheson, whose opinions are generally followed through the whole of this chapter:

‘Virtue, in the mixed nature of man, is at once a condition of his mind, an aspect and carriage of his person, and an ordinary series of action, fitted to his situation, as the member of a community, in which the conduct of every particular person contributes its share to the good or the evil incident to the whole.’

On the subject of accounting for moral approbation, various difficulties have arisen. Dr. Clarke and others refer virtue to the fitness of things, and Mr. Woollaston to the conformity of will to truth; but both these systems are erroneous, and are unfit to explain the phenomenon of moral approbation, which, being itself a sentiment or affection of the mind, must be derived from a principle to be sought for among the considerations which influence the will, and not among the perceptions of mere intelligence. Upon the principle of utility adopted by Mr. Hume, the distinction of right and wrong appears to be resolved into a mere difference of tendency, or external effect, in the actions of men; and in that of sympathy, which is supported by Dr. Smith, there is a reference to a supposed well-informed and impartial observer, in which there is an implied confession, that there is some previous standard of approbation, which is that principle of moral approbation which is sought after, and which the author at last informs us is to be found in the idea of *perfection* or excellence, which the intelligent and sociated being forms to himself, and to which he refers in every sentiment of esteem or contempt, and in every expression of

of commendation or censure. The great obstacle to the reality of moral distinctions consists in the difficulty of reconciling the different judgments of men relating to the morality of external actions. This difficulty is attempted to be obviated by stating the distinction between physical and moral action, the different manners of various countries, the diversity of languages, the narrow limits of positive law, so far as they regard the positive duties of morality; and it is contended, that from discordance in these circumstances, men may vary in their judgment of external actions, without any variation of the ideas of *excellence* or *defect*. The fundamental rules of morality may be reduced to the following propositions:

‘ That, in matters physically indifferent or of small moment, men are to observe the rules established in their own country, or in their own condition; as they speak its language and wear its dress: that, in judging of behaviour in other countries, or in other situations, they are not to estimate proprieties of conduct by the standard of their own manners or customs; but to allow every nation the free and distinctive use of its own.

‘ That wherever the manners of our country are dangerous to its safety, or have a tendency to enfeeble or to corrupt the minds of men; to deprive the citizen of his rights; or the innocent of his security; it is our duty to do what is for the good of our fellow-creatures, even in opposition to the fashion and custom of the times in which we live.’

It is not uncommon to consider virtue itself as a *mean* between two extremes, towards either of which any deviation from the middle path is vice; but illustrations of this doctrine, however useful in treating of the external effects of virtue, may rather serve to mislead in considering the excellency or depravity of mind from which those effects proceed.

Merit is the presence of that quality which is the object of moral approbation; and demerit, on the contrary, is the absence of such quality. The various degrees of merit may be traced from their highest effects, in acts of wisdom and beneficence, down to those of inferior consideration, such as propriety, decency, civility, and politeness. And at the same time there is a corresponding gradation in the scale of demerit, which has acquired a more pointed discrimination of names, such as those of crimes, offences, and faults. Moral law is an expression of what is good, and therefore an object of choice. To every rational choice there is an *obligation* and a *sanction*. Obligation implies some tie or bond which is incurred by the person obliged; while sanction implies the consideration by which he is induced to fulfil that bond. The sanctions of moral law may

may be enumerated under the heads of *conscience*, *public repute*, *compulsory law*, and *religion*.

Our author proceeds, in his fourth chapter, to treat of jurisprudence, or compulsory law, which he considers as it regards the rights, and as it regards the defences, of man. He remarks that

‘ It may be observed, that in all the instances in which the right of one man to compel another is acknowledged, compulsion, either in its immediate operation, or in its final effect, is an act of defence.’

To the purpose of defence a sufficient measure of force is required. That which a man may lawfully defend or maintain, is termed his *right*. This term may be reckoned among the subjects which are incapable of a formal definition; but by recurring to cases in which it is supposed to exist, the mind is left to collect its meaning from a consideration of the point to which it refers in all the cases enumerated. Wrong is a violation of right; and the same concern which interests the mind in the preservation of the one, is a cause of resentment on the violation of the other. According to the law of defence, a right may be maintained by any means which are *effectual* and *necessary* for this purpose; so that this law consists of three clauses: 1st. That a wrong apprehended may be *prevented*; 2d. That a wrong offered may be repelled; and, 3d, That reparation may be exacted for a damage received. The rights of men may be considered either in respect to their subject, or in respect to their origin. Considered in respect to their subject, they are by lawyers sometimes termed *personal* and *real*. Considered in respect to their origin, they may be termed *natural* and *artificial*, or *original* and *adventitious*. Personal rights subsist in the person, and relate to the constituents of his nature and frame; rights *real* subsist in things separate from the person, and may be referred to three heads, *possession*, *property*, and *command*. The subjects of original rights being coeval with man, must be limited to the constituents of his nature, or the common appurtenances of his kind. Original rights are recognised upon being barely stated; adventitious rights require to be supported by evidence, in which the manner of their acquisition is to be cited and considered. Adventitious rights arise from occupancy, labour, convention, and forfeiture. These different modes of acquiring adventitious rights, are discussed with much ingenuity by the learned Professor; but we are sorry that our limits will not permit us to enter into a particular detail.

In treating on jurisprudence as it affects the defences of men, the variety of persons and circumstances to which it may relate must be considered; the variety of persons may be considered under

under the title of *persons single, strangers and unconnected, of fellow-citizens, and separate nations*. A right which is invaded, may be defended by *persuasion, deception, or force*. In the first of these cases every man must defend himself by any method which nature may have put in his power, without the control of any other person; but under every political establishment there arises a relation of *magistrate and subject*, and of *fellow-citizens*; and in this point of view, as it is the condition of the magistrate to govern and protect the subject, so it is the condition of the subject to be protected and governed; and it is the mutual condition of fellow-citizens to be vested with rights, in regard to which they are to one another reciprocal objects of consideration or respect. The citizen, even when injured, must not interpose to do himself right, but must have recourse to the protection of the magistrate for this purpose. There are, however, exceptions to this rule, where the interposition of the magistrate cannot be obtained to prevent a wrong, or where the injury cannot be repaired by the utmost exertions of his power. The following remarks on duelling are worthy of attention:

‘ Among these modes of attack, there is a singular species of injury, owing its effect to the caprice of manners in modern times; but of which the effect is extremely severe and injurious, not susceptible of any legal measurement, nor repairable by all the power of the magistrate.

‘ In consequence of this singular caprice, altogether unknown to the celebrated nations of antiquity, not only aspersions of character, but any single term of reproach, or gesture of insult, so far impairs the estimation or credit of the person who suffers them, that, if the breach be not repaired, in the way which caprice also directs, he becomes an outcast from the society, in which his condition depends on the esteem in which he is held. Applications to the courts of justice, for reparation, would only increase the dishonour. False aspersions may be removed by the clearest evidence of truth; but this would not remove the dishonour of having suffered them to be made. An accusation may be known to be true or false; its effect, however, in this case, does not depend upon the degree in which it is believed, but upon the degree of tameness with which it is received. Even calumny hurts, not by the imputation of any criminal charge, but rather by the imputation of cowardice, implied in the manner of receiving it; and the defence which caprice has provided for this mode of attack, is a display of courage, not a refutation of any false accusation. The accusation may be true; but the courageous vindicates his honour: the accusation may be false; but the coward is overwhelmed with disgrace. Even the injured is denied the use of stratagem or surprise in his own defence. He must meet his antagonist, however injurious, upon equal terms; and, if he would preserve his honour, must pass through the hazard of a single combat for that purpose. His character for integrity may be blasted
or

or entire; but his estimation, in point of honour, is independent of either condition.

‘ In this example, the deviation from reason is monstrous; but the dignity of justice is made to stoop to the caprice of fashion; and, so long as the private injury is suffered to have its effect, and the petulance or folly of one person may drive another from his place in society; so long as the magistrate cannot preserve the citizen in his state; so long the injured citizen must be allowed to defend himself, and to adopt the only means which are effectual for that purpose.

‘ To reform this abuse, has been justly considered as an object of great importance in the policy of modern nations: but attempts to this purpose have begun, perhaps, at the wrong end, by denunciations of severity against those who, finding their honour invaded, take the ordinary way of preventing or repairing the wrong with which they are attacked. If men are by vulgar caprice made accessible to an injury of the most serious nature, to an injury which the magistrate cannot repair, it is by no means just to restrain them from the only means of defence that is left in their power. This being evident to the general sense of mankind, the only effect of severities denounced by the law, in most countries, against the injured, as well as the aggressor, has been to oblige courts of justice to fall upon measures to evade the rigour of that very law they are required to apply.

‘ If any thing could be done, to deprive unmerited affronts of their efficacy in the opinion of those who determine what shall be a gentleman’s reception in the world, the evil might probably soon give way, and the sensibility of honour be changed into a contempt of offences which are now admitted to have the most fatal effects.

‘ We sometimes congratulate ourselves on the influence of this practice, as it tends to polish our manners, and restrain the violent from offensive brutalities, to which passions may lead in the intercourse of society. We do not consider, however, that we owe our sensibility to such offences to the imputation of cowardice, which is made to accompany the suffering of them; and that, without this imputation, unmerited insults would pass in society, like the noise of a scold, in which no one is ever pleased to think himself affronted, and which he therefore hears with contempt or indifference.

‘ Crimes that proceed from the affectation of bravery, are not to be repressed by the fear of punishment. The threats of law, in such cases, give the quarrelsome a double opportunity of distinguishing himself. He braves his antagonist, and he braves the law. Even if he should be punished, his sufferings does not degrade him in the opinion of the people; for the people, like himself, admire bravery, even where it tends to disturb the public peace.

‘ Absurdity is more likely to cure itself, by being suffered to incur its extreme, than by being kept within certain bounds, which serve to conceal the extent of its folly; and duelling, like other fashions, is likely to wear itself out when it becomes an affectation of the vulgar, and ceases to distinguish those who are termed men of fashion.

‘ If there be in our times a progress towards this point of reformation, we have reason, in the mean time, to regret the condition of those, perhaps the least deserving of any such fate, who may suffer under the prevalence of a folly, of which they cannot always avoid the effects.

‘ Were the law to distinguish the *aggressor*, in the first approach to a quarrel, just marks of disgrace affixed to the person in whom the offence originated, might perhaps inspire every party with caution to avoid a quarrel, and have better effects than any forcible restraints applied to check the affectation of courage. It is not valour to brave disgrace; and, if the law should condemn an aggressor to some species of infamy, the fashion of seeking for honour, by rashness in giving provocation, might be restrained by the prospect of an opposite effect.

‘ It might be difficult, indeed, in many cases, to fix the charge of aggressor upon either of the parties in a quarrel: but the best effect of law is not merely to give the decision where an occasion of trial has arisen, but to prevent such occasions, from an apprehension of a decision that may be given. All that the law, indeed, can do, is to lay down a rule, and leave juries to apply it to the best of their judgment, on the circumstances of every particular case. The rule, even before it is applied, would have its effect on the minds of those who are exposed to get into quarrels, and who, by avoiding the imputation of being the first aggressor, might prevent the first steps towards an offensive dispute.

‘ Juries too, in some instances, might be able to fix the charge of aggressor, so as to increase the effect of the law by real examples of ignominy and disgrace. We pity the person who is forced into a quarrel to vindicate his honour; but we detest the bully who is ever forward in giving rise to such quarrels; and any disgrace which the law might award for such characters would be supported by the general opinion and consent of all reasonable men.’

The prerogative of the magistrate in punishing crimes, as well as those laws or established customs relating to his prerogative, or the privileges of the subject, of whatever rank or condition, are referred to convention. This doctrine differs but little from the original contract of Mr. Locke and his followers; and the illustrations of it which are given in various parts of this work, might be opposed with much success to the modern schemes of government, founded on the supposed rights of man. The case of independent nations, and the laws of war and peace as relating to them, occupy the two concluding sections of the fourth chapter of the second volume of the work.

Emancipated from the trammels of municipal law, and the restraints of positive enactments, the Doctor proceeds to treat of ‘ Moral Action, or the Characteristics of a virtuous and ‘ happy Life.’ The object of compulsory law is defence; but the

the object of morality is different; it is to inspire virtuous dispositions and render the state of the person we would defend not only secure, but otherwise essentially happy. The application of force is therefore not now to be considered, but the felicity of a willing mind. The considerations which lead to this choice have been already enumerated under the titles of *conscience*, *religion*, and *public repute*; but, in addition to these, every advantage of a benevolent mind and well-informed understanding must come in aid; and the characteristics of a virtuous life frequently revolved in the mind, may have a salutary tendency to the same effect:

‘ And as animals are observed to have their native propensities, from which there results a distinctive aspect and manner of life. This observation will apply no less to man: He too is distinguished from his birth. He is destined to know himself, to observe and to choose among the ends of pursuit, and his aspect is different, according to the choice he has made, and according to the ability or temper with which he persists in that choice.

‘ Every situation may try the skill of the person who is placed in it; may try his disposition to beneficence, or his neglect of other men, his fortitude and his application to objects that merit the principal share of his attention. *Skill*, *disposition*, *application*, and *force*, are accordingly the qualifications to which we referred, as requisites in the formation of an active character. And, with a view to which, morality has been divided into a corresponding number of parts or branches, which are termed the Cardinal Virtues, to wit, *prudence* or *wisdom*, *goodness* or *justice*; *temperance* and *fortitude*. This arrangement of the subject is familiar in common language, as well as in the schools of morality, and points out a method in which we may continue to pursue what remains to be observed on the external characteristics of a virtuous life.

‘ *Wisdom* is the virtue or excellence of the understanding, by which a person is skilful in the choice of his objects, and in the means of obtaining his end.

‘ *Goodness* is the excellence or virtue of a good disposition, from which men venerate the rights, and feel for the sufferings, of their fellow creatures, from which they are averse to be the authors of harm, from which they are ever faithful and true to the expectations they have raised, and ever ready, by acts of kindness and good will, to prevent even the wishes of those who by nature or accident are made to depend on their will.

‘ *Temperance* is the proper choice of our pursuits and applications; or such a measurement and regulation of inferior gratifications and desires as is consistent with the higher and better occupations of our rational nature.

‘ *Fortitude* is that strength of mind which enables the virtuous man to withstand opposition, to contend with difficulty, and to possess himself in the midst of danger. It is the foundation of magnanimity,

which, when a person is called upon to perform any of the more arduous duties of life, inspires a courage superior to the consideration of inferior interests or concerns. Its principle in the mind is an essential constituent of happiness; not only as it qualifies men to encounter with ease any real difficulty, distress, or danger, but as it is an antidote to those imaginary fears and misapprehensions which constitute weakness, and a principal article of meanness or suffering.

Wisdom, stated as one among the cardinal virtues, refers chiefly to those duties which result from reflection, and which terminate in preserving the state and character of the individual unimpaired. Such are *decency, propriety, modesty, economy, decision, and caution*. The objects prohibited by decency may be summed up under three heads, *nudity, filth, and obscenity*. Propriety is the suitableness of action to the person who acts, to the occasion, and to the place; and may be considered as it respects *rank, profession, or age*. Among the proprieties of high rank, may be reckoned that *reserve* which avoids improper familiarities, and that candour which guards against petulance, contemptuousness, affectation, or scorn. Professions too have their proprieties; and among the proprieties of age we may reckon that diffidence is proper to youth, resolution to manhood, and tranquillity to the last stages of life. Modesty is the proper measure of our claim or pretension to consideration or preference relatively to other men. Economy is the proper use of what fortune has bestowed, whether in the fruits of labour or inheritance. Decision is a seasonable and resolute choice of what the occasion requires. Caution consists in a proper attention to the difficulties likely to arise in any business or pursuit in which we are about to engage. As wisdom is the specific attribute of intelligence, goodness is the attribute of mind also beneficently disposed towards others:

• *Goodness* in the conduct of life, is an aversion to be the cause of harm; it is veneration and love to the worthy; it is candour, and a desire to redeem the most defective; it is pity to the distressed, and congratulation to the happy; it is that disposition, from which a man, observing the rights of his fellow-creatures, shuns every violation of them with the most sacred regard; from which he feels for their sufferings, and is ever ready to relieve them; from which he is faithful and true to his professions or engagements, and ever ready, by acts of kindness and good-will, to prevent or to outrun the wishes of those, who, by nature or accident, are placed within reach of his influence.

In referring to the offices of goodness, as they may be separately comprised under the titles of *innocence* and *beneficence*, we may consider *fidelity, veracity, candour, and civility*, as modifications of the first; *piety, personal attachments, gratitude, liberality*,

vality, charity, and politeness, as modifications of the second. On the part of the subject, and under the title of *allegiance*, are included fidelity, deference, and submission to the will of the sovereign or magistrate. Temperance implies that disengagement from mean pursuits and gratifications which gives to the mind full command of its faculties in the preferable occupations of a rational nature. It may be considered as consisting of two branches, sobriety, or restraint from excess; and application, or a proper direction of mind. To the first are opposed *debauchery* and *sensuality*; to the second *dissipation* or *sloth*. To the requisites of an active character which have been considered, it is necessary to subjoin that of a forcible or resolute mind. Under this title fortitude is required to sum up the virtues; and among the principal characteristics of this virtue may be reckoned resolution, intrepidity, patience, and constancy. After commenting upon these at some length, the author concludes the chapter with these observations:

‘ We have thus, in pursuance of the method proposed at the outset of this work, attempted to state the actual distinction of man in the system of nature; his powers of discernment and choice; his pursuits and attainments, the progress he is fitted to make, and of which the direction and effect for the present is committed to himself; but of which the final termination is, we trust, far removed from his view.

‘ We have inquired, how far any distinction of moral good and evil is manifest to such powers of perception as ours, and coincides with the distinction of enjoyment and suffering, of perfection and defect, of which our nature is susceptible; and last of all have considered in what form the distinction of good and evil should operate in the choice and external actions of men; from the whole of these facts and observations striving to evince, that, as there is in the frame of man a state of *health, strength, and beauty*, eligible upon its own account; so there is in the form of his intelligent being, and in the pursuits of his active life, a scheme of *wisdom, goodness, temperance, and fortitude*, which, apart from any consideration of the past or the future, is, in the present, and in every moment of his existence, the preferable state of his nature.

‘ But, in return for such labours as these, we may be told, that we only perpetuate the mistake which is common to many, who, in amusing themselves and others with such inquiries, have formed schemes of perfection, to be admired indeed; but far above the reach of mankind. That as, in our general account of perfection, we far exceed what human nature is fit to attain, so, in the detail of our precepts and rules, we would substitute a concerted manner, for the principles of benevolence and wisdom, which, when present, supersede the necessity of rules, and, when wanting, are ill supplied by any ritual or external forms of behaviour: that, in talking so much of virtue, we stand aloof from the world in which it ought to be

practised, and assume the importance of wisdom in mere words and technical forms of expression. It was thus, we may be told, that philosophers in ancient times affected a language, a manner, and dress, peculiar to their respective sects; and hung out the supposed colours of wisdom, with little regard to its real possession or use.

This charge may be true of many, and the error pointed out in it is a just object of caution to every one who would avail himself of the fruits of a scientific education, without incurring its abuse. The ancient sects in philosophy have been likened to the modern sects of religion, rather than to the varieties of opinion in matters of philosophy that have been entertained in modern times. Sectaries are ever ready to value themselves more on their profession of faith than on their practice; and are fonder of any mystery or paradox they have adopted, than of the plainest and most important dictates of reason or good sense. We must not, however, confound under this censure those examples of sublime and accomplished virtue, which shone forth amidst the pretensions and ridiculous formalities with which philosophy, in the persons of many of its professors, may have been disgraced. It was in the reign of Aurelius that Lucian gave loose to his satire on this subject; and it was by this philosopher, in return for his ingenuity, that he was protected and employed in the provinces.

It must indeed be admitted, that to erect philosophy into a profession, of which the votary is distinguishable from the rest of mankind, otherwise than by a superiority which good education may give in any department of life, and by a blameless or beneficent intercourse with other men, is to mistake its nature. In the school, and in our attempts to think comprehensively and justly, we are led into system; but in reaping the fruits of a culture thus applied to the mind, it may be expected that on every particular occasion we should acquit ourselves properly, without any formal display of our general knowledge. It were piteous, indeed, to carry nothing with us from hence into the world, but formal pretensions and technical terms. To this the manners of the world are fortunately repugnant, and perhaps lead to an error in the opposite extreme, that of affecting indifference to considerations of virtue, which we inwardly and justly esteem. To talk of morality in the fashionable world, is said to be quoting the ten commandments. And pretensions are so far from being received as merit, that persons of the most honourable nature do well to avoid any unnecessary parade of their principles or system of action.

A person who has learned his exercises, may be known by his carriage, without retaining the stiffness or formality of the school; and his movements, when most graceful, appear to be the effects of mere inattention and negligence. Nor need we scruple to carry this observation by analogy into the most serious considerations of a manly and beneficent life. Virtue itself is then most perfect, when it does not appear to have been learned or assumed as a merit; but is such as the person who practises it cannot depart from, even in the most negligent moments of life. This, however, we must not suppose

to be the fruit of actual neglect or indifference to what is right: the master artist, in every instance, derives the accomplished freedom of his calling, not from the negligence with which he seems to practise it; but from an accomplished understanding of its graces, and a habit of correctness carefully acquired in practice: and the manners of an accomplished man in beneficence and candour, however little it may be necessary to display the system he has formed on these subjects, must not be entrusted to chance.

Perfection is no where to be found short of the infinite mind; but progression is the gift of God to all his intelligent creatures, and is within the competence of the lowest of mankind. There needs not the genius of Hannibal or Scipio to detect the false notion of happiness, of honour, or of personal distinction, which mislead the fool and the coxcomb. Men of humble capacity may learn to think justly on these subjects: and, as far as wisdom depends on a just conception of familiar objects, it is the nature of created mind, in the course of experience and observation, to improve its sagacity, and to make continual approach to the highest measure of intellectual ability of which it is susceptible. The world is far from being so unreasonable as to expect from every individual the utmost perfection of which human nature is susceptible; nor of any individual, in every action of his life, a full display of all the good qualities of which he himself is possessed. But the virtue of goodness, whether operating in mere innocence, or in beneficence, is surely improvable, if not actually acquired by habit.

It is that which we commonly enough express in the distinctive denomination of a gentleman, when employed as a term of praise; it implies a certain caution to avoid what is hurtful or offensive to others, liberality; and humanity, or attention to oblige, and to anticipate the wishes of the modest and unassuming. The conversation of gentlemen is accordingly a scene of satisfaction and ease, not of strife and competition for superiority; and this we impute to their breeding, and to the lessons of a dignified rank, not to any original difference of disposition or of temper.

The attainments of men are actually unequal, and the individual differs from himself at different periods of his life.

Whether the inequalities of men, as some have alledged, may be traced to mere casual circumstances, engaging them in different efforts and pursuits, may be left undetermined. Or without venturing an assertion so little susceptible of proof, we cannot doubt, that if the same person differs from himself at different times, it is in consequence of the efforts he makes, or neglects to make, and of the habits of thinking or of acting he has formed. Good offices conciliate the minds of men; and to have lived with the beneficent and the candid, tends to inspire benevolence and candour.

It is a vulgar observation, that we are inclined to love those on whom we have conferred a benefit, more than those from whom we have received one. And the interpretation of this fact is somewhat malicious; to wit, that we are more tenacious of the obligations we

have laid upon others, than of those which have been laid on ourselves. But in whatever way it be understood, the fact is important. Every one has it in his power to do a good office, though not always to receive one; and, according to this observation, therefore, has that in his power which is most effectual to his own happiness, or the goodness of his own dispositions.

Fortitude and temperance grow upon the mind, in the continued practice of these virtues. The veteran becomes calm in the midst of a hardship or danger to which he is accustomed. And the strenuous mind, in any worthy pursuit, becomes superior to the allurements of pleasure, or the languors of sloth.

We have thus, on the supposition of an improveable nature in man, endeavoured to specify what he has to wish for himself, for his friend, and for mankind. And the model proposed for him cannot be improper, if it lead him to shun any evil to which he is actually exposed, or to attain any good which is placed within his reach.

Under the head of politics Dr. Ferguson treats of population, manners, wealth, and civil and political liberty, with all its accompaniments in raising the genius and character of a people. In every nation the people may be considered in two respects: first, as forming the object for whose sake the society is instituted, and for whose sake it ought to be preserved; and, next, as affording the means by which the society is so formed and preserved. In the first point of view, *Salus populi suprema lex esto* is the fundamental principle of political science; but, in the second, they must accommodate themselves to the interest of the state. In considering the political character of a people, or their fitness or unfitness for the form of government under which they live, it is observed, that a people in a democracy are disqualified to preserve the political form of their country; and in an aristocracy and monarchy, nobles without beneficence, elevation, or dignity, and inferiors without respect or submission, instead of giving strength proportioned to their numbers, would prove the immediate source of weakness, or lead to revolutions of uncertain or dangerous issue. Nations may also differ in respect to the objects on which they are chiefly intent, one being engaged in commerce, and another in war; and their characters must vary according to their various pursuits. The three next sections, on the wealth of the people and the revenue of the state, consist chiefly of an abridgment of the opinions of Dr. Smith on those subjects: they have certainly received an additional sanction by the authority of the learned Professor; but, for the reason we have stated, we beg leave to refer our readers to the work itself for the necessary information on these topics. Our author proceeds to consider civil or political liberty, which he regards not as an exemption from all restraint, but rather the most effectual application of every just restraint

restraint to all the members of a free state, whether they be magistrates or subjects :

‘ The functions of liberty we may conceive under three separate titles, *legislation*, *jurisdiction*, and the *execution of the law*, or *conduct of the national force*. And, corresponding to these functions, in every political establishment, three distinct powers may be considered; namely, the *legislative*, the *judicative*, and the *executive*. With respect to each of these, liberty requires that the powers should be effectual to the establishment and preservation of order on the part of the subject, and that it should be so exercised on the part of the magistrate, as not to offer any injustice or wrong to the people.’

Under the head of the legislative power, and its effects on liberty, the right of representation is considered, which the author demonstrates never to have been admitted but under many modifications; and contends, that unless an individual absolutely dissents, he is bound by convention to submit to the laws of the country under which he lives, though he is unrepresented in the legislative assembly. In considering the judicative power, the propriety of separating it from the legislative authority is pointed out; the appointment of courts of justice, of juries, and of advocates, are explained; and the utility of their respective functions ascertained. On the executive power we meet with the following remarks:

‘ In respect to the executive power, therefore, in whatever form it be established, it is equally the interest of the citizen that it should be irresistible in every act of justice, and that it should be restrained in every commission of wrong. And in this consists the great problem of political wisdom for securing the liberties of the people, which are equally exposed in the licence of the subject against the magistrate, as in the licence of the magistrate against the subject.

‘ Of the functions of executive power, some are in continual exertion; others, whether casual or periodical, are only occasional. Some require great secrecy and dispatch; others admit of being publicly known, and may be the better directed for having been publicly discussed.

‘ Functions of so different a nature may be discharged with advantage, by powers differently constructed, and under different forms of procedure.

‘ Matters of an ordinary and public concern, such as the administration of revenue, or the internal policy and government of a country, may be treated of in numerous councils, and taken up at regular periods, or at any convenient times.

‘ Affairs that may come by surprise, and that require dispatch, may be committed to single men, as they are, in republics of small extent, commonly entrusted to magistrates, elected at determinate periods: and, in such cases, the abuses of power may be guarded against by limiting its administration, as at Venice, or by shortening its duration, as in other small republics of Italy.

It being the interest of the citizen that the executive government employed in the defence of his rights should, in that exercise of it, be altogether irresistible, it is required of course, that no other person within the state, no faction or partial combination whatever, should be able to withstand the power of the magistrate when fairly exerted.

The work is closed by a number of important observations on the different sources of national felicity.

We have now completed our analysis of this important publication. To enter into minute criticisms upon it would be equally inconsistent with the nature of the performance, and derogatory from the established reputation of the author. We will only in general remark, that he seems least successful in his examination of the intellectual powers of man, and most at home when inculcating the rules of practical morality. If we were called upon to select any part of the work as possessing peculiar excellence, we would point out the third chapter of the first part, and the fifth chapter of the second. The language is always perspicuous, and occasionally animated and elegant. We congratulate Dr. Ferguson on having terminated his literary career in a way so honourable to himself, and useful to the public; and trust that in declining years he will continue to enjoy the satisfaction arising from a well-earned reputation, and a well-spent life.

ART. X. *Major Hook's Defence to the Action of Criminal Conversation brought against him by Captain Charles Campbell and tried at W. St. Martin's, 26th February, 1793.* pp. 124. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Murray. London, 1793.

THE indignation with which certain offences inspire the virtuous part of mankind, too often induces them to neglect the examination of the testimony by which such crimes are proved, and of the evidence by which such guilt is substantiated. The purest courts of human judicature can hardly be supposed to be exempt from a prejudice so congenial to the nature and character of the rest of the world. The numerous cases of the present complexion, which, in consequence of the licentiousness of modern manners, have come before the present Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench, have induced him to exercise a portion of severity, which the cautious may blame as indiscriminate, and the discerning condemn as defeating the purposes of its introduction. And every candid inquirer must see the necessity of the utmost deliberation when he is informed, that the law of the country, as at present established, offers no remedy for

for the mischief arising from partial considerations, or mistaken zeal. This circumstance, at the same time, justifies Major Hook in submitting to the public what may be deemed an extraordinary defence of his conduct. After admitting, in the most pointed terms, the propriety of the deportment of the judge and jury who tried the cause, the Major proceeds to animadvert on the character and testimony of the witnesses who were produced against him, supports his positions by many positive affidavits, and brings forward the most ample declarations in favour of his general conduct, from many respectable individuals in India. Subjoined to the defence are many letters which passed between Captain Campbell, his father, his wife, and the Major. The defence is concluded in the following manner:

* The letters of Captain Campbell are given at large in this appendix, and they contain much matter for observation and discussion. I shall only observe here, however, that they establish this fact, that, from the commencement of his marriage, Captain Campbell and his wife lived without interruption in a state of domestic misery; a fact of importance to my case, because, when contrasted with the positive testimony of his brothers and his sister-in-law, who swear to their unvaried domestic happiness, it shews the latitude they had given themselves, establishes what I have repeatedly remarked, the strong bias of the evidence in favour of the plaintiff, without regard to truth, and manifests the determination of the plaintiff in contradiction to his own letters, and in spite of his consciousness to the contrary, to assert and endeavour to prove whatever he thought would benefit his cause.

This fact is of equal importance in another view, by establishing a presumption, at least, that no traces of affection or family delicacy would stand in the way of his using every mean to accomplish a scheme which might tend either to the gratification of his caprice, his avarice, or his malignity. Captain Campbell writes in one letter that they were miserable from the beginning of their marriage; in another, that he never could feel a moment's peace till seas and seas divided them, and that he will never write to her again; and, in a third, that all the world saw their misunderstanding; that he had come to a determination to keep a mistress. This resolution to separate from Mrs. Campbell runs through the whole; and it appears that he had even ordered the deed of separation to be made out.

His capricious disposition is manifest in every line; and it is difficult to decide whether the badness of his temper or his heart, is most likely to have dictated his conduct. The letters of his father, which in my own vindication and that of Mrs. Campbell I am forced to make public, and which nothing but this persecution could have wrung from my most secret repositories—display an aged and afflicted father lamenting over the vices of a profligate son. Such testimonies, from such a quarter, authorise me to affirm, that the motives which I have ascribed to the plaintiff are the real motives which dictated his proceedings against me, and confirm what is sworn to in some of the affidavits.

affidavits respecting the undue means taken to obtain the testimony which was produced against me. Upon the whole, when it is considered that the case of seduction opened and rested upon as the ground of my guilt, was contradicted in the very first stage of the proof by evidence, which, in place of seduction, established a fact of flagrant prostitution in the supposed scene at Ramsgate. When it is considered that my taking Mrs. Campbell to Scotland was suggested by Captain Campbell himself, and never proposed or hinted at by me. That on that journey no familiarity is alledged, nor any trace of evidence given of it, although Captain Campbell followed us almost immediately from stage to stage, and his *agents* have since traced us in our route.

When it is considered that the laws of probability, those sure, unerring, and established rules by which to try the credibility of all human testimony, are violated in every part of the evidence given by the witnesses; and that the testimony of the witnesses, especially that of Robert Green, is contradicted positively, in its most essential parts, by affidavits, in which the facts sworn to coincide with, and are supported by, the nature of the transactions, and the circumstances in which they took place. When it is considered that Mrs. Campbell has now for nearly five years lived in my house, and under my protection, and that in all that period four instances only of guilty intercourse or indecent situation are specified by the witnesses, although those situations, and the whole tenor of our conduct, according to the testimony of the same witnesses, represent us as the most unguarded and inconsiderate of human creatures, and although the witnesses represent themselves as excited by the strongest curiosity to discover our connexion. When it is considered that disinterested witnesses swear to the propriety of our mutual behaviour, and that there is the strongest testimony to character that can be given. When it is considered that the black and suspicious character of the plaintiff is derived from sources which cannot err (the evidence of his father's letters and his own), and that attempts upon witnesses have been traced, specified and sworn to. When all these things are considered, I submit to my friends and the public, with anxiety, but with confidence, that I have completely established my innocence. It shall be the unremitting object of my life to confirm the belief of that innocence beyond the possibility of doubt, by discovering the means of obtaining justice against those whose crimes have brought upon me this unforeseen and dreadful misfortune. To secure success to this great and important object, I was told that in prudence I should postpone the present publication: in compliance with this suggestion I deliberated, but found the continuance of such an exertion totally destructive of my peace of mind.

For Major Hook's own sake we would advise him to carry his last threat into immediate execution. At the end of the pamphlet is added an extract from the *Bon Ton Magazine* for February 1793, which we have no hesitation in pronouncing an open contempt of public justice, and an infamous endeavour to prejudice this cause,

ART. XI. *Archæologia; or, Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity.* Published by the Society of Antiquaries of London. Volume X. pp. 502. 4to. 11. 1s. White. London, 1792.

[*Concluded from our last.*]

XXXVI. [XXXV.] *Roman Remains in Sherwood Forest, discovered by Hayman Rooke, Esq. F. A. S.*

THE first of these remains is Holly Hill, near the village of Arnold, the highest ground on the forest, and having part of a very extensive camp upon it. This we believe, with Mr. Rooke, to be a Roman one, not merely for the reason which he adduces himself, the declaration of an old farmer at Arnold, who 'has heard his father say that, when he was a boy, this work 'was pointed out to him as a large Roman camp;' but from the regularity of its double rampart and ditch, in the existing remains; from the ample size of it in the memory of the old farmer, now 417 yards long, but then 'twice the length of 'what is now distinguishable;' and from the actual appearance of a square *prætorium* within it, 17 yards long, and standing on the highest part of the camp. Yet when Mr. Rooke would infer from the existence of such a camp here, 'not above five 'miles west of Nottingham,' that Dr. Gale is probably 'right 'in supposing Nottingham to be a Roman station,' and the very '*Caufennis* of the Romans;' he infers what is not possibly inferrible from his premises, and he forgets the general course of the *Iter* in which *Caufennis* is mentioned. The appearance of a camp is no more an argument for a station, either five miles or five furlongs distant, than it is of the commencement of an eclipse, or the approach of a comet. And the course of the *Iter* runs through Norfolk and Cambridgeshire to Lincoln; leaving Nottingham, and Nottinghamshire, all to the west*. We make this and some preceding animadversions upon Mr. Rooke's essays, in order to check a little the ardour with which he pursues the discovery of antiquities; not indeed to stop his pursuit, but to steady his pace, and to carry him more surely to the goal. Mr. Rooke only wants a little more knowledge to become an eminent antiquary; knowledge, not merely drawn from the current of our own writers, but taken up at the fountain-head, the *Itineraries* and *Ptolemy*. 'The coins that have 'been found in and near these camps,' adds Mr. Rooke, 'are

* See Antonine's Vth *Iter* and Richard's III'd compared, in Whitaker's *Manchester*, II. 338—340. 8vo.

' sufficient

‘sufficient proofs of their having been in the possession of the Romans.’ This is a collateral kind of argument, which the unthinking indolence of antiquarianism often imposes upon its own judgment and the world’s. A Roman coin found in a camp, *does* prove the Romans users of the camp. But how can a coin found *near* a camp do so? It can prove only Romans to have been *near* it. Yet the camp may be British, may be Saxon, may be Danish. ‘Our worthy member, the Rev. Mr. Pegge, has a coin of the larger brass, but much defaced, found in the ‘camp on the Combs.’ The camp on the Combs, then, is Roman. So far the argument proceeds with power. But what shall we say to the other camps? ‘Three [coins] I have had given me, two of the middle brass, the heads only distinguishable: these were found near Oxton, *not far* from the camp at Oldox.’ They might as well, for any evidence that they afford concerning the users of the camp at Oldox, have been found in the moon. ‘The other in my possession, is of the ‘larger brass—: this was found near Arnold,’ that is, two miles from the camp on Holly Hill, and therefore pointing as little to it as to the north pole. ‘Several others have been ‘picked up on that part of Holly Hill, that has been enclosed;’ and therefore unite with all which we have noticed before, to prove the camp itself Roman. Mr. Rooke then proceeds to notice his discovery of ‘an urn half full of ashes,’ which, on examination, appears ‘to be iron corroded with rust;’ with ‘a sword in a wooden scabbard,’ and, ‘near the end of the ‘sword, fifteen glass beads,—not—perforated.’ The iron urn he considers, and very justly, as a ‘singular and curious discovery;’ and, as he subjoins, ‘I should think not manufactured in this island.’ This is said in the baby fondness of an antiquary, in order to give a greater antiquity to the urn. But as a considerable manufacture of iron appears decisively from Strabo, to have been established in this island at the time of his writing, and before the reign of Tiberius*; so we may be sure that pots of iron were common in the island, *when* one of them was used for a burial-urn. But Mr. Rooke extends his fondness even to the very beads, and thinks they were equally manufactured abroad. ‘A very learned and ingenious member of ‘our society,’ he cries, ‘the Rev. James Douglas, is of opinion that the Britons had not acquired the art of making glass till after the Roman invasion; and offers many reasonable conjectures in support of that opinion. He cites a passage in Isaiah, which, he says, “alludes to the daughter of Sion, to “the city in its flourishing state, before the first captivity.

“ This was the period of the Phœnicians, when Tyre and Sidon were in their prosperity, when all the arts of merchandise were cultivated to the greatest height of perfection. It is to this period then, 768 years before Christ, we are to look for the existence of glass.” (Nenia Brit. No.V. p. 61.) We have produced this argument, on purpose to expose the general mode of arguing among antiquaries. The reasoning powers are not dispensed very liberally to scholars in general, but seem (we are sorry to say so) to be given with a very sparing hand to antiquaries in particular. This extract is a specimen. The ‘ very learned and ingenious Mr. Douglas’ is produced in evidence, that ‘ the Britons had not acquired the art of making glass till after the Roman invasion.’ What then does Mr. Douglas say upon the point? He *absolutely says nothing*. He says not one word about *Britain*, about the *Roman invasion* of it, or about the *manufacturing of glass* in it. He only refers to *Halah*, to shew ‘ the existence of glass’ at Tyre some ages before the Christian æra. In this astonishing manner is the faith of readers played with, by these argumentative triflers. *Quousque tandem abuteris patientiâ nostrâ?* Yet, all the while the sun of history is shining full upon the Douglasses and the Rookes, and shewing them, in the testimony of Strabo, that, even in his time, the Britons manufactured so considerable a quantity of glass vessels, *vasta cœna*, as even to export them with their gold, silver, and iron, with their hides, their cattle, their slaves, and their hunting dogs*. Before such a sun as this, the shadowy ghosts of conjecture, and the flimsy films of reason, vanish away in a moment.

XXXVII. [XXXVI.] *Collection of a Subsidy 1382, by the Prior of Barnwell. By Mr. Gough.*

XXXVIII. [XXXVII.] *A Charter of Barnwell Priory, from the Original in the Possession of Richard Gough, Esq.*

XXXIX. [XXXVIII.] *A Survey of the Maner of Wymbledon, in the Moneth of November, 1649. Communicated by John Calry, Esq. F. A. S.*

This estate belonged to the queen of Charles the First; and the account of the house and gardens contains some curious particulars that we shall select for the information of our readers. To our surprise we find DUTCH BARNS, to have been then introduced among us; as the account mentions ‘ one barne of five bayes tyed, having two sheds on the west side thereof, ‘ one Dutch barne, and one outhouse;’ and, as it adds, that in

another place, 'there is *one Dutch barne.*' To our equal surprise, we see DUTCH STOVE-GRATES then used; as in 'one —roome called the Lord's closett,' there is 'one *Dutch stove* of good use and workmanship;' and in 'one other roome called the stone-gallery,—in or neare the middle thereof, stands a fayer and very large *Dutch stove* of curious worke and excellent use.' We meet also, at this early period, with 'the GROTTOE, having three double-leaved doores opening thereunto, floored with very good paynted tyle, and wrought in the arch and sides thereof with sundry sorts of shells, of greate lustre and ornament, *formed into the shapes of men, lyons, serpents, antick formes,* and other rare devices; *the bottomes of the walls are sett round with cement of glasse, in nature of little rockes* —there is allsoe opposite to the doores of this roome, *fortie sights of seeing glasse sett together in one frame,* much adorning and setting forth the splendour of the roome.' We suppose this grotto to have been formed by the queen, and to be the first perhaps in the kingdom. Among the wall-fruit trees are enumerated 'apricocks, May cherries, duke cherries, *peare plums,* BOONE CRITYANS, *French peares;*' again, 'apricocks, peaches, *peare plums,* May cherries, BOONE CHRITIANS;' and again 'one fayer BOONE CRITYAN peare-tree.' Did the queen introduce the *Bon Chretien* into our island? We have also 'borders of coran trees, *respasse,*' a name that shews us the original appellation of our raspberries, 'strawberrie bedds,' &c. 'There is allsoe one very fayer tree called the IRISH ARBUTIS, standing in the middle parte of the—kitchen garden, very lovely to looke upon.' We have even an ORANGERY. In the 'orange garden there stands one large garden-houfe; the out-walls of brick fitted for the keeping of *orange-trees*—; in which sayd garden-houfe there are now standing, in squared boxes fitted for that purpose, *fortie-two orange trees bearing fayne and large oranges.*' But 'in the sayd garden-houfe there now allsoe is one LEMON-TREE, bearing *greate and very large lemmons;*' and 'one POME CITRON-TREE; *six POMEGRANET-TREES,* bearing faire and large fruites;' and 'eighteen *orange-trees,* that have not yet borne fruites,' being 'placed with their boxes in one little room of the sayd mansion-houfe, called the lower *Spanish* roome.' All this gives us an idea of Charles's queen, which is new; and shews her to have exercised her taste pretty much like one of her successors in the royalty, by introducing foreign trees into our country. To these extracts we shall just add one more, because it is pleasing in itself, and serves to explain the meaning of our *Birdcage Walk* in St. James's Park. 'One other of the sayd litle courts is fitted with a *birdcage,* having three open turrets, verie well wrought for the sitting

‘ sitting and perching of byrds; and allsoe having standing in it
 ‘ one very fayre and handfome fountayne, with three cisternes
 ‘ of lead belonging to it, and many severall small pipes gilded
 ‘ of lead, which, when they flow and fall into the cesternes, make
 ‘ a pleasant noyse: the turrets, fountaynes, and litle court are
 ‘ all covered with strong iron wyres—: this birdcage is a greate
 ‘ ornament both to the houle and garden.’

XL. [XXXIX.] *Description of the Great Pagoda of Madura, the Choultry of Trimul Naik. By Mr. Adam Blackader, Surgeon.*

We have been so particular upon the articles preceding, that we cannot rest upon this. Nor do we see any point in the immediately succeeding appendix, that in these circumstances can detain us any longer. We have only to add, therefore, that, if we have been severe in some of our strictures above, we have been so with the kindest intentions towards the Society; that we wish to rouse the vigilance, and to stimulate the energy, of the council, in preventing essays polluted with ignorance and folly from publication; and that we hope to see the next volume, under our correcting hand, rise into higher accuracy, clearer knowledge, and brighter reasoning, than the present.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. XII. *Anecdotes intéressantes et secrètes de la Cour de Russie, tirées de ses Archives; avec quelques Anecdotes particulières aux differens Peuples de cet Empire. Publiées par un Voyageur qui a séjourné treize Ans en Russie. 6 tom. Paris, 1792.*

ART. XII. *Interesting and secret Anecdotes of the Court of Russia, extracted from its Archives; with some particular Anecdotes respecting the different People who inhabit that Empire. Published by a Traveller who resided Thirteen Years in Russia. pp. 1407. small 8vo. 6 vols. 15s. Paris, 1792. Sold by J. de Boffe, Gerard-Street, London.*

[Continued from our last.]

NOTWITHSTANDING the just admiration inspired by the genius of Peter the Great, when we read an account of that long series of useful and brilliant actions which he performed, we cannot help being filled with horror to find them mixed with the most disgusting acts of injustice, and sentences dictated by that ferocity which was natural to his character.

The

The punishment to which, in 1701, he condemned Gregory Talitzkoi, printer to the court, is one of those blemishes which occasionally tarnish the history of this great legislator. Talitzkoi, gained over by the clergy, had printed some pamphlets which tended to excite insurrection among the people. It was asserted in these pamphlets, that the Czar, by the circumstances of his birth, and by his public and private conduct, was the antichrist. This reproach, and many others of the like kind, were considered by the populace as demonstrations; and the Emperor became alarmed. Talitzkoi being informed that a thousand ducats were deposited in order to be given as a reward to any one who would deliver him up, fled to Siberia; but avarice was too much interested in his destruction to leave him any hopes of living unknown. He was soon discovered, and conducted to the Czar, who caused both him and his accomplices to be several times exposed to the torture, and to be afterwards put slowly to death, by holding them over the vapour of corrosive substances. They were not thrown into the flames till their hair and beards dropt off, and until their bodies were almost reduced to ashes.

A fondness for women was one of Peter's weaknesses, as it has been that of many other great men: but though this soiled him sometimes astray, he never suffered it to absorb that time which was due to the business of the state. Mrs. Cross of England, the Swedish Countess Hamilton, and Mademoiselle Cramer, had no great cause, however, to praise his munificence or his liberality. Anna Iwanowa Moins, who would not yield to the solicitations of Menzikoff, was defamed by him to Peter, and obliged to return all the jewels and other presents which the Czar had given her.

That Peter was not delicate in his amours, may be judged from a painting at Peterhoff, where he is represented under the dress of a Dutch boor, sitting on a cask in a tavern, and holding a coarse servant girl in his arms. It is said that he was one day pursued by a Dutch gardener, who gave him several blows with his rake, for making a young woman who worked in his garden lose her time. In apology for him, it may be said, that he was often incited to these coarse pleasures by his favourites, who paid as little respect to the imperial dignity as to the opinion of the public.

In Holland he was engaged in an amour, the consequences of which caused his death, by bringing on the stone and a retention of urine. We must not, however, accuse Boerhaave, into whose hands he committed himself; for besides that he would never adhere to a proper regimen, the pain which he suffered did not interrupt for a moment the course of his debaucheries.

Besides buffoons, Peter I. had a great many dwarfs to divert him, and he was so fond of marrying them with others of the same kind, that there was scarcely a nobleman who had not at least one of them to attend his wife.

At the marriage of the Duke of Courland with the Princess Anne, who was afterwards empress, two large pies were served up, from which issued two dwarfs, who complimented the newly-married couple, and the most distinguished amongst the guests.

In 1740 Peter caused a male and female dwarf to be married, with all those foolish ceremonies and burlesque diversions which were so agreeable to his taste.

Though he loved bravery in his officers on the day of combat, he detested duelling. For this practice he never would admit any excuse, however grievously one might have been offended. 'What,' said he once to one of his generals, 'are you foolish enough to imagine that a sword blade can repair your honour?' If an officer came to ask his permission to fight a duel, he chastised him severely; but he knew how to render justice where it was due. The aggressor was always punished, and sometimes, according to the degree of his fault, he was ignominiously driven from the presence and service of the Emperor.

A complaint was brought to him at Moscow against Colonel Badon, Ensign Crassau, and Captain Saxe and his domestic, who had killed several people, dupes to this unfortunate point of honour. After an examination of this affair for several hours, he caused the colonel to be beheaded, and the ensign to be hung. With regard to Saxe, as he was under the protection of Menzikoff, he exerted himself so much to save him from punishment, that he was condemned only to perpetual imprisonment; his domestic received thirty blows of the knout, of which he died soon after. This striking severity rendered duels afterwards very rare in Russia. In this respect Peter regulated his conduct according to that of Gustavus Adolphus on the like occasion. Two Swedish generals informed Gustavus one day, that they were under the necessity of fighting for an affair of honour, and requested his permission. Certainly, said his majesty, provided I am present. At the time appointed he repaired to the place of rendezvous, followed by the executioner, and coolly ordered him to hang up the survivor. The executioner immediately erected a gallows, and the two generals, brought to a proper sense of their duty, shook hands, and were afterwards reconciled to each other.

[To be continued.]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For JUNE 1793.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 13. *King of France. The Execution of Louis the Sixteenth (partially investigated); in which is considered the Conduct and Character of the deceased Monarch, and the Motives which actuated his Enemies to make him their Victim. To which is added, a circumstantial Account of his Execution; and a true Copy of his last Will and Testament.* pp. 46. 8vo. 6d. Downes. London, 1792.

THE narrative seems to contain a faithful, though general account of the commotions in France, so far as they relate to the king, from their earliest origin to the fatal catastrophe of the monarch. But there are chasms in the chain of incidents, which the authors could not supply. Of the secret intrigues and cabals which filled the eventful period between the trial and execution of the sovereign, we are left entirely in the dark; and it is time alone that can remove the veil, which at present conceals those flagitious transactions from the knowledge of the public. There are, however, in this production, many circumstances that will gratify curiosity, and excite in the reader compassion towards royalty in distress.

ART. 14. *A Journal during a Residence in France from the Beginning of August to the Middle of December 1792. To which is added, an Account of the most remarkable Events that happened at Paris from that Time to the Death of the late King of France.* Folio. pp. 502. 8vo. 7s. boards. Robinsons. London, 1793.

Dr. Moore's Journal introduced by the following advertisement: "This work has been so much retarded by unexpected incidents, that the first volume only could be published at present. The second will appear soon."

As the scope and tendency of this performance cannot be gathered so well from a first volume, we wait till the whole is finished before we presume to offer our readers any account of it.

ART. 15. *The Natural History of Insects; compiled from Swammerdam, Brooks, Goldsmith, &c. Embellished with Copper plates. Intended as a Companion to Buffon's Natural History.* pp. 310. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Perth, printed; and sold by Mudie, Edinburgh, 1792.

It must arise, we conceive, from the cheapness of labour in North-Britain, that a work, executed in a scientific manner, and containing twenty octavo plates, should be sold for the sum of three shillings and sixpence. Whoever, by a residence in the country, wishes to become acquainted with those minute and interesting natural objects which are constantly

constantly under his eye, will find enough to gratify his curiosity, and direct his researches. The arrangements are well made, the descriptions sufficiently accurate, and the plates, though not elegant, correct enough to give a perfect idea of the subjects.

ART. 16. *The Nature, Extent, and Province of Human Reason considered.* pp. 211. 8vo. 3s. boards. R. Edwards. London, 1792.

There is in some men a very ingenious knack at making common things important, or delivering old things in a dress that at first surprises the unwary into an idea of novelty. This work is adorned by a Greek motto, which, though only a verse from the Testament, yet, by having no reference, passes for a mark of profound erudition. An affected panegyric dedication to the Bishop of St. David's is signed by seven sets of initials. Is this to make it appear the performance of the mystical number of seven persons; and are the names of these seven concealed to increase the mystery? Perhaps future ages may determine, that their number was seventy, and that, like the story of the seventy interpreters, they were confined in as many separate chambers, where they each produced a book exactly similar to the other. We might as well believe this, as that a work so affectedly singular throughout could be the offspring of more than one brain.

This quantity of *purpureus qui late splendet pannus* is really an injury to the performance, which, had it assumed less an air of singularity, and of the dulness of metaphysics, we might have recommended as containing the principal arguments in favour of a revelation not in every respect according itself with the scope of human reason.

ART. 17. *An Essay on Generation.* By J. F. Blumenbach, M. D. *Public Counsellor to his Britannic Majesty, and Professor of Physic in the University of Gottingen, &c.* Translated from the German, pp. 84. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray. London, 1793.

The theory of generation, like all other theories which had their origin in the earliest periods of physiological inquiry, has subsisted chiefly upon conjecture; and on the same precarious foundation, though rendered a little more plausible by collateral support, has it been continued even to the present time. Drelincourt, a teacher of Boerhaave's, collected no less than two hundred and sixty vague hypotheses respecting it, from the writings of the ancients. But, however varied in particular circumstances, they universally terminate in two doctrines, namely, those of evolution and epigenesis. According to the former of these, the germ of every animal, and every plant, that ever has lived, and ever will live, were all created at the beginning of the world; and it is only necessary that one generation should be successively developed after another. The latter doctrine, or that of epigenesis, is, that the prepared, but at the same time unorganised rudiments of the fœtus, first begin to be gradually organised when it arrives at its place of destination at a due time, and under the necessary circumstances.

The doctrine of the pre-existing germs was maintained by the late celebrated Baron Von Haller; by whom it was thought to be so clearly demonstrated, that his friend Mr. Bonnet considered his arguments as unanswerable. But this opinion, improbable in itself, and utterly repugnant to the simplicity of nature, seems to be satisfactorily refuted by the present author, who, with equal ingenuity and force of reasoning, establishes the opposite theory.

ART. 18. *The Servant's Friend; or, Masters and Mistresses best Gift.*
No Date.

There are four pages of good counsel in this work, each enforced by a well-selected passage from holy writ. To follow the instructions it contains, would make every servant good; to peruse them may do something towards effecting so desirable a purpose.

ART. 19. *Verses on the beneficial Effects of Inoculation; which obtained one of the Chancellor's Prizes at the University of Oxford in the Year 1772. By the Rev. William Lipscomb, A. M. late of C. C. C. Oxford, and Chaplain to the Right Hon. the Earl of Darlington. Now republished, by the Author's Permission, at the Request of the House-Committee of Governors of the Small-Pox and Inoculation Hospitals, for the Benefit of that Charity.* PP. 31. 40s. 18s. Johnson. London, 1793.

The present exigencies of these valuable institutions, from the necessity of rebuilding one of their hospitals, calls on the governors for every possible exertion. Among the rest, the republication of Mr. Lipscomb's encomiastic ode on inoculation has been suggested as one means. On a performance that has been thought deserving an academic honour, it is unnecessary to dissent; and the purpose for which it is now offered to the public would be a sufficient apology, if any were necessary.

ART. 20. *Anatole; or, A contemplative View of the material and intellectual Worlds compared: a Poem on the Birth of Christ.* pp. 40. 4to. 2s. 6d. Evans. London, 1793.

We have seen little modern poetry so harmonious without insipidity: the verse is correctly elegant, and the sentiment chaste and sublime. On a careful perusal of it, we have observed no one fault conspicuous enough to deserve censure. The character of Christ is plainly and strikingly delineated:

Meek and o'ercast, unnotic'd and unknown,
His rising beams with feeble lustre shone;
And scarce o'er tribulation's waves upborne,
Through clouds and tempests shed a doubtful morn;
But soon the storm dispers'd his bright'ning ray,
Around diffus'd an intellectual day.
No yoke impos'd he but himself he bore,
Nor line prescribed; but where he led before;
And constant ev'n to death his life he gave,
His faithful flock to rescue and to save;
Crush'd the grand robber with his dying blood,
And fell expiring on his ruin'd foe.

- ART. 21. *Amalgamator: Sketch of the Alarms; or, John Bull in Hyberia. An Heroi-Comic Poem, with Notes.* pp. 24. 4to. 2s. Owen. London, 1793.

A stupid catchpenny, in which some self-created critic analyses a poem, which, he tells us, sold off so rapidly, that he has published this sketch for the benefit of those who had the misfortune not to see the original. But we do not wish to be under any such obligations. My good friend, send the remaining copies of thy work to the pastrycook; they are best adapted to wrap up trifles and froth biscuits. We never heard of this famous poem; but will just give the reader an opportunity of exercising his judgment on four lines which our critic has SELECTED:

‘Hush, every breeze—hush—let not a word be spoke
While I in whispering accents the soft muse invoke;
In humble strains thus simply to relate
The great danger we’ve all escap’d, both church and state.’

SIMPLY indeed!

- ART. 22. *A Letter to a Member of Parliament from a Land Owner, on the proposed Line of Canal from Braunston to Brentford.* pp. 38. 8vo. Bell. London, 1793.

The writer of this letter wishes to impress on the mind of the person to whom it is written this position, ‘that a limitation of dividend on the subscriptions to the Braunston canal is both just and necessary.’

POLITICAL.

- ART. 23. *A Letter from his Grace the Duke of Richmond to Lieutenant-Colonel Sherman, Chairman to the Committee of Correspondence appointed by the Delegates of Forty-five Corps of Volunteers assembled at Lisburn, in Ireland. With Notes by a Member of the Society for Constitutional Information.* pp. 16. 8vo. 1d. or 7s. per Hundred. Johnson. London, 1792.

The Duke of Richmond has ‘certainly varied his means,’ but whether he will secure the ‘unity of his end,’ is a question upon which we must entertain a certain degree of doubt. As his Grace’s letter is so well known, we shall make no observations upon it. The notes are such as might be expected; they are the production of a mind viewing with detestation the conduct of an apostate from the cause of parliamentary reform.

- ART. 24. *A Treatise on levelling Principles.* By the Hon. John Somers Cocks, M. P. pp. 32. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Faulder. London, 1793.

Mr. Cocks’s treatise contains no new observations. Like all who have written against the doctrine of equality, he mistakes the question. The French never said that the position of equality tended to any equalisation of property; they contend only that ‘all men are born equal in respect of their natural rights;’ that is, that all men have an equal natural right to the possession of liberty, and to exert

those qualities with which nature has endowed them, in any way not incompatible with the peace and prosperity of society. This is the plain fact, divested of all metaphysical quibbles or subtle sophistry.

- ART. 25. *Comments on the proposed War with France, on the State of Parties, and on the new Act respecting Aliens. With a Postscript containing Remarks on Lord Grenville's Answer, of Dec. 31, 1792, to the Note of M. Chauvelin. By a Lover of Peace.* pp. 110. 8vo. 2s. Dilly. London, 1793.

Every one who reads the title of this pamphlet will be convinced that any observations from us are now unnecessary, and perhaps would be improper.

- ART. 26. *An Address to the Inhabitants of Great Britain and Ireland, in Reply to the Principles of the Author of the Rights of Man. Written in 1792.* pp. 51. 8vo. 1s. Mathews. London, 1793.

The author of this address evinces no small degree of ability; but it is impossible for any ability to prop up the miserable doctrines of Mr. Burke—doctrines that tend to make men the wretched dependents on the will of kings, and to render the human race worthy of meriting the cruel appellation of ‘the swinish multitude.’

- ART. 27. *Six Essays on Natural Rights, Liberty and Slavery, Consent of the People, Equality, Religious Establishments, the French Revolution; which were greatly approved, and have been in much Request since their original Appearance in the Public Advertiser.* pp. 48. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Woodfall. London, 1792.

These essays are written with a considerable degree of ability and skill, but they are not convincing. After all, it is impossible to subvert this position, ‘that all power emanates from the people—that in them resides the sovereignty—and that their will must be the law.’

- ART. 28. *Justification du Rappel de l'Ambassadeur d'Angleterre en France, et Refutation de tous les Faits et Raisonnemens sur les Affaires de France, allegues par M. Brissot dans la Declaration qu'il a Recemment, Redigé, et Adresseé par Ordre de l'Assemblée Nationale aux puissances Etrangères.* pp. 61. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. London, 1792.

This is a very feeble justification of the recall of Lord Gower from Paris. After Mr. Fox's excellent letter to the electors of Westminster, any observations upon that recall are unnecessary—to that letter we refer the author of this justification.

- ART. 29. *Facts, Reflections, and Queries, submitted to the Consideration of the Associated Friends of the People.* pp. 42. 8vo. 1s. No Bookseller's Name. Edinburgh, 1793.

We have found no arguments in this publication forcible enough to induce the friends of the people ‘to dissolve their associations, to hide their heads, and be silent.’ We present our readers with the following

following extract, of which we shall leave them to form their own opinion:

'I may, with ready confidence, affirm, that the British constitution does not at present verge, and has not for a long while verged, towards any undue influence in the crown. The *direct* influence of the sovereign is not equal to that of the other branches of the legislature. Even his *indirect* influence, whether legislative or executive, taken simply by itself, is rather weaker than stronger than it is by the fundamental laws of our constitution understood to be.'

ART. 30. *Falsehood, Famine, and Campaign, disformed by Turb and Patriotism; and a Dressing to the Addressee on the late Proclamation. Also friendly Caution to the Friends of the People; benevolent Retaliation, or Good for Evil; a Division of France into several free States recommended; and a prophetic Fragment, respectfully addressed to all true Britons.* By Timothy Shaveclose, Esq. an Enemy to Blasphemy, seditious Levellers, and ambitious Hypocrites. pp. 93. 8vo. 1s. 6d. London, printed for the Author; and sold by Owen, 1793.

This ample title-page will give the reader an idea of what he is to expect from this volume. Squire Shaveclose is, however, no additional proof of the truth of the motto adopted by a certain cheap vender of learning, 'Sutor ultra crepidam feliciter ausus.' We would therefore advise him to stick close in future to his razor and strap; or, if he will continue to display his eloquence in public, let him content himself with instructing the little multitude he may gather around him at Moorfields or Tower Hill.

DIVINITY.

ART. 31. *Vindictæ Landavenses; or, Strictures on the Bishop of Landav's late Charge. In a Letter to his Lordship.* pp. 39. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. London, 1792.

When we reviewed the Bishop's elegant charge*, we little suspected any cavils could have arisen against it among his more liberal brethren. But we were mistaken. Candour, we find, extends to a certain degree with all; beyond this the natural temper or prejudices of education or rank will shew themselves. Thus the pontiff may safely be candid to the pagan; the English episcopalian to the catholic, and even extend his indulgence so as to admit a discretionary toleration to all. When he goes thus far, he fancies himself liberal, and conceives it his duty to correct such as extend their wishes to that universal philanthropy which, if one may believe prophecy, and trust to the prospect the world affords us, must ultimately happen. The author of these *Kindicæ*, or *Strictures*, appears among the moderate class of churchmen; but so little is his regard for fair investigation, for open inquiry after truth, that he does not scruple to censure the learned Bishop for pointing out any little flaw he may suspect in the

* See our Review, Vol. XIX. p. 443.

fabric of the church. This he calls 'deserting his station, betraying his trust.' What then is this station? Is it to support error at all events? Is it tamely to acquiesce in abuses? Is it obstinately to defend parts that are not tenable, and the attention to which diverts the forces from those points which are most important, and equal to every attack? The author assures us his strictures shall flow from a spirit as liberal and as Christian as the Bishop's. Yet he suspects his lordship of the vanity of appearing singular, and accuses him of using sinister attempts at popularity with a party. Who is this party? His lordship would answer, 'Every liberal Christian.' But our author, who probably loves quiet errors better than ungaily truths, is, without being aware of it, as much an enemy to discussion as Mr. Burke. While he reprobates, with much warmth, the ungenerous aim of Mr. Burke in gilding the iron mask that veiled the features of despotism; he is hardly aware how much of this reprobation arises from 'the plentiful crop of dangerous poisons which have sprung up from the seeds of discussion sown by that gentleman.' We mention this rather as an apology than a censure of the author. He writes like a man of an excellent heart; and, though warped by education and particular habits of society, evinces an understanding that will do honour to any cause. We therefore trust to time, and a more enlarged sphere of action, to produce those changes in his sentiments, the predisposition to which may easily be discovered in his writing.

ART. 32. *A Letter to the Right Reverend the Lord Bishop of Llandaff; containing Remarks on his Lordship's Charge to the Clergy of the Diocese of Llandaff.* pp. 84. 4to, 2s. Debrett. London, 1792.

This letter writer, who signs himself a country curate, does not possess all the urbanity of the former author. The chief of his book is directed against the French revolution, which, in church matters, he seems wonderfully offended at. But it happens unfortunately, that this author's artillery always turns against himself. Speaking of the persecution of which the Dissenters complain, and which his lordship laments, inasmuch as it precludes them from civil offices, our curate observes, 'Every law is an infringement of the natural rights of man—the best human laws cannot but be attended with some partial evil—thus, according to your lordship's argument, every member of society is persecuted.' Do all laws, then, press partially on individuals, and bind only those who are not concerned in making them? But, continues our author, 'The Dissenters are not more persecuted than their fellow-subjects who are excluded by law from enjoying particular offices that procure wealth, or power, or influence, or honour.' If, indeed, there are subjects thus oppressed in common with the Dissenters, his lordship would answer, 'Instead of an apology for the oppressions of the latter, it only proves the propriety of relieving both them and their fellow-sufferers.' The rest of the letter is made up of trifling objections to particular passages; and an attempt at detecting inconsistencies in his lordship's charge. But most of them argue petulance, rather than a wish to inform, and would do more credit to the quibbling of a lawyer than the gravity of a divine.

ART. 33. *A Sermon, preached before the Honourable House of Commons, at St. Margaret's, Westminster, on the Day appointed to be observed as the Day of the Martyrdom of King Charles the First. By the Rev. Thomas Hay, Chaplain to the House of Commons.* pp. 19. 4to. 1s. Water: London, 1793.

The event of the unfortunate Charles's death, and the recent murder of Louis, are very rationally and justly compared to each other; as the outrageous effects of a misled and deluded people. It is a good discourse on the occasion; but we cannot discover any particular beauty of language or sentiment throughout it.

For the ENGLISH REVIEW.

NATIONAL AFFAIRS

For JUNE 1793.

FRANCE.

FROM the extent of their territory, the multiplicity of their resources, the population of their country, and the character of their rulers, it has frequently been the lot of the French to oppose combinations of a similar nature to that which has been now formed against them. But if the character of this nation has made such alliances necessary, the principles which actuate human conduct has generally rendered them unsuccessful. The discordant interests of different potentates can be with difficulty reconciled; but every community is concerned to repel foreign aggression, and support individual independence. Though intestine commotions may have checked this spirit among the inhabitants of France, yet it continues to pervade its armies, and after having aided them in making a vigorous resistance, may ultimately conduct them to victory; for the enthusiasm by which they are distinguished, has led them to display as much courage when fighting for the protection of their republic, as their ancestors discovered when bleeding for the glory of their monarch. Regardless of minuter political differences, they have continued to defend the general interests of the state; they submitted with alacrity to the commands of Fayette and Dumourier, till they discovered the treachery of those officers; and, under the same impressions, they lamented the fall of Dampierre, and have prepared to follow the banners of Custine. The excesses which have attended the revolution are confined to Paris and its environs; the former despotism spread its influence over the country at large. Remote from the effects of the former, and still retaining the remembrance of the latter, the troops have hitherto preserved

preserved their fidelity, and the people still honour them with their confidence; and while these ideas predominate, no faction, however formidable, and no crimes, however atrocious, can terminate the fate of the Convention, or restore, by that means, a permanent government to France. Though the zeal which animates the soldiery threatens to prolong the present unhappy war, yet their honourable, though mistaken enthusiasm, obtains an involuntary tribute of applause; and happy will it be for mankind, if it convinces the princes of Europe of the unstable nature of arbitrary power, when the military force, on which it relies, can with so much facility be converted into the instrument of its destruction. It seems therefore probable that the republic will continue an unanimous resistance against its external enemies till an alteration of circumstances shall have dissolved the formidable confederacy which has been formed against it. As the connexion between the courts of

AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA

has rather tended to disseminate than to destroy the opinions against which it was employed, both parties will awaken to a sense of its impropriety; and the politics of the cabinet of Berlin give us no assurance that it will adhere to the faith of treaties when interest requires their violation. The fertile plains of Poland present a much more splendid object of ambition to the house of Brandenburg than unprofitable warfare with France; and as one contract has been broken to obtain possession of them, another may be disregarded to secure the invaluable prize. The existing government of a nation is best secured by the vigour of its internal regulations, and the energy of its executive authority; and to obscure the lustre of the Imperial diadem by directing the Germanic body, is a more profitable and glorious pursuit than starving desperate republicans in the city of Mentz, and assailing to bombard the towns of the French Netherlands. By whatever system of interior policy France may be regulated, she will finally have Prussia for a friend, and Austria for a rival. Though the family compact suspended their ancient animosity for a time, yet as their jealousy was founded upon circumstances which involved the general balance of power in Europe, and the safety of every independent kingdom, its dissolution would naturally revive their ancient animosity. The contiguity of their dominions to those of the enemy, the losses they sustained in the course of last campaign, and the indignation which the treatment of the late Queen of France must have excited at Vienna, concurred to stimulate the Imperialists to vengeance.

THE PRINCE OF SAXE COBURG

has accordingly redeemed his own reputation, and avenged the wrongs which were offered to his master; and if a pacification can

can be effected, it must be by his exertions, in conjunction with those of Great Britain. The army under his command, and that of the Duke of York, after forcing the French camp at Fantars, has laid siege to Valenciennes. That fortress is in a formidable state of defence, and the governor appears resolved to hold out to the last extremity. And the impetuous Culline, who now leads the troops of the republic in this quarter, may probably afford the garrison an opportunity of signalising their courage, as he will endeavour to raise the siege by making an incursion into the Austrian territories. Should he succeed in this attempt, it will be in his power, by cutting off the supplies of the combined troops, to compel them to abandon their enterprise. On the other hand, if they get possession of this town, as they will then have secured a place of retreat in case of discomfiture, they will be enabled to penetrate into the heart of the country, and effect a conjunction with the malecontents in France. On the event of this attempt the successful issue of the campaign, and perhaps of the war, will depend; and though the experience and skill of the officers, and the valour and discipline of the allied armies, afford the most happy presages of a favourable termination of the siege, yet the many proofs of inflexible resolution and undaunted courage which the French have exhibited, will prolong the contest, though they should not be sufficient to turn the current of success. In the southern departments the progress of

THE SPANIARDS

has been lately so rapid as to excite the most serious apprehensions in the executive council of France. Neither the resources, nor the character of the Spanish nation, have been estimated according to their real value. Though the country has been reduced to a state of comparative poverty, from the want of the general circulation of labour, yet the voluntary contributions which have been raised from the immense masses of property possessed by the aristocratical and ecclesiastical bodies, will enable the court to conduct the contest with spirit; and the ancient animosity which subsists between the two nations will impel the people to second its schemes with ardour. Inimical to each other from the operation of every prejudice which the dissimilarity of manners, religion, and government, can create, on this theatre of warfare we may contemplate a crusade of slavery against licentiousness, and superstition against atheism. In such a contest the religionist will commonly prevail. Impressed with ideas congenial to the nature and condition of man, animated with the hope of reward, and seeking, by his merits, to shun the punishment with which he is threatened, he has much higher motives for exertion than him who is actuated by principles

diploms which arise from a frigid imagination and a corrupted heart, fostered by philosophic depravity, and supported by practical villany. If any part of France has escaped the contagious example of the metropolis, perhaps the provinces adjoining to Spain, still retaining some respect for the faith of their ancestors, and the ancient constitution of their country, may enlist under the banners of the invading army, and assist in destroying the authority of the Convention. A rupture among the

MARITIME POWERS OF EUROPE

extends its influence to every quarter of the globe. The flames of war have already reached the West Indies; and the first efforts of the British arms have been crowned with success. The Island of Tobago has already fallen into our hands; and the capture of most of the other French possessions will probably follow. The happiness of extensive colonial territories is incompatible with the nature of republican governments; they are generally exposed to the rapacity of needy delegates from the parent state, or permitted to preserve a precarious independence by their own exertions, plundered as the price of protection, and spared only when neglected. The rashness and impetuosity of the Legislative Assembly and the National Convention, produced the most dreadful enormities in St. Domingo and the other dependencies of the republic. The security they will enjoy under the protection of Great Britain may probably induce them to throw off their allegiance to their disjointed commonwealth; and, by completely obtaining this branch of commerce, Great Britain has the prospect of an ample indemnification for the expenses of the war in which we are involved.

From a

RETROSPECTIVE VIEW

of the conduct of the belligerent powers, it will be found that England, Austria, and Spain, seem resolved to proceed with vigour and alacrity; that Prussia and the Empress are distracted by varying and incompatible schemes of ambition; that the States of Holland are relapsing into inactivity: and France, notwithstanding her internal dissensions, continues still formidable from the fidelity of her soldiery, and the zeal of a peasantry attached to the cause of the Convention. But the severest misfortunes which the ingenuity of malevolence could devise, or the most exasperated adversary inflict, are inferior to those which the members of that body are bringing upon the people they represent. At the commencement of

THE REVOLUTION,

when we beheld a magnanimous nation throwing off the yoke of oppression, and vindicating liberty, we might pardon their mistaken

mistakes for the sake of their principles, and consider their aberrations as necessary to teach them the value of the prize they had obtained.' Though we saw the friends of the constitution deviating into republicanism, and from republicans transformed into anarchists; though we beheld the horrors of August and September obscured by the infamous execution of Louis the XVIth; yet, convinced that human iniquity could scarcely go farther, we might imagine that some of those feelings, so inseparable from humanity, the want of motives to impel to crimes, or of objects to gratify revenge, would have brought these enormities to a conclusion. The most practised sophistry can scarcely dare to ascribe the wickedness of the Convention to the difficulties they were obliged to encounter, or the obstacles they were called upon to surmount; to the impatience of the nobility under the loss of their privileges; the manifesto of the Duke of Brunswick; the superciliousness of the British administration; or the machinations of the court of Vienna. Can the indignation of Europe be appeased by a renewal of the massacres at Paris; the murder of a monarch atoned for by slaughtering his wife and family; or the offences of the republic annihilated in the elevation of Marat to the office of dictator? Or is it necessary, in order to complete the misery of France, that, after having so long submitted to the domination of men whose talents were perverted to the destruction of their fellow-citizens, it should at last bend beneath the yoke of wickedness and stupidity in conjunction? Such, however, is the crisis which at present awaits the nation. By the arrest of the leaders of the moderate party, the small remnant of virtue and ability which was left has been extirpated from the Assembly, the system of disorganisation has been completed, and pardon, impunity, and applause, ensured to every contempt of moral duty, and every violation of positive law. The other departments of the republic groan under the oligarchical tyranny of the commons at Paris, and behold their own dignity insulted in the persons of their representatives: but no propitious genius appears to point out the way to amendment, to heal the wounds of his bleeding country; and, applying the energetic language of Tacitus to the present state of France, we may with justice exclaim, '*Nobilitas, populi, quissi gestique honores pro crimine et ob virtutes certissimum exitium.*' The success of the revolvers in Brittany, and the commotions which have arisen at Marseilles, have hitherto had but little effect on the minds of the people at large; for as the French were formerly attached to monarchy without knowing upon what grounds their predilection was founded; so they now appear equally enamoured of republicanism, without examining the privileges it bestows.

Though

Though every rational friend of

THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION

must rather admire its practical utility than its theoretical excellence, yet there are certain parts of our government much more beautiful in contemplation than beneficial in their effects. The mode of trial by parliamentary impeachment is a most conspicuous instance of the truth of this observation. When we consider it as a solemn appeal from the public virtue of the democratic branch of the legislature to the wisdom of the aristocracy, we must acknowledge, with submission, the gravity of the accusation, and rely with the most perfect confidence on the integrity of the tribunal before which it is preferred; while, during a proceeding of this nature, we might expect a suspension of party prejudices, accompanied with patient acquiescence in the decisions of the court, and manly forbearance in case of disappointment in the event. Instead, however, of this dignified mode of proceeding, we have seen the managers against Mr. Hastings, in consequence of their official character, arrogating to themselves a portion of infallibility which precludes the possibility of his acquittal; endeavouring to abuse the legislative sanctity of the House of Commons; to prevent animadversions on their conduct as individuals; and, in defiance of that fundamental maxim of English jurisprudence, which authorises every man to presume innocence till guilt is ascertained, striving to repress those reflections which must naturally arise in every mind on a trial unprecedented in length, and unparalleled in circumstances. According to these doctrines, impeachment is synonymous with being condemned, impeccability is conferred upon those who bring it forward; and to hesitate in bestowing that exalted attribute upon them, is to be deemed a libel upon the representatives of the nation. Unfortunately for these promoters to perfection, their constituents have occasionally deemed some of them worthy of censure; and, by the interference of an English jury, the freest investigation of this subject has been defended and justified. When the purposes for which parliament had been summoned by administration had been answered, and the opposition could bring forward no object to engage the attention of the House or the country, justice still seemed to require that some measures should be adopted respecting this impeachment. An inquiry into this subject was accelerated by the unexpected termination of the prisoner's defence. Nothing could have induced Mr. Hastings or his advocates to adopt this measure, but the most perfect conviction of his innocence, and the utmost anxiety to obtain a decision. And as the conductors of the prosecution had been furnished with every opportunity of obtaining

obtaining evidence, and of commenting upon it; it might have been imagined that the ends of substantial justice would have been obtained without a repetition of those eloquent but inefficient harangues, which can in no degree affect the judgment of the peers. By means, however, of that singular coincidence which this business produces between Messrs. Burke and Dundas, the trial has been postponed to a new session; though we are well persuaded the latter gentleman would have more effectually met the wishes of the people if, in earlier stages of the proceeding, he had exerted himself to rouse the diligence of the Lords, to stimulate the attention of the managers, or to bring the impeachment to a conclusion, if discovered to be vindictive or unnecessary.

In pursuance of those opinions which he has retained with so much firmness, amid the desertion of his friends, and the clamour of his opponents,

MR. FOX

has again brought forward a proposition for

TREATING WITH FRANCE.

As, by the law of nations, the crimes committed in an independent state, are neither the object of investigation nor of punishment, it follows, as a necessary inference, that the character of their rulers can be no impediment to entering into a negotiation with them. The result of a contrary doctrine would be to make the tranquillity of Great Britain to depend on the portion of virtue or talents possessed by the governors of the French republic. However impolitic it may be thought to contract alliances with men of their description, yet surely there can be no impediment to agree in abstaining from mutual acts of hostility and slaughter. As we entered upon the war to check the domineering ambition of France, and pledged ourselves to abstain from interfering in their internal government, their conquests being abandoned, the object of the war is obtained.

The infamous

PARTITION OF POLAND

could give no great reason to hope for moderation from the powers with whom we are at present allied; and it would be consistent with the liberality of a free and enlightened people to dissolve every connexion with those who were guilty of such a flagrant act of injustice. Whether the disordered state of our commerce was to be attributed to the war or not, yet it was perfectly obvious that nothing but the return of peace could restore it to its former condition; and in every view, policy, prudence, and justice, required a discontinuance of the contest.

Though

Though these arguments were urged with strength and ingenuity by the honourable mover of the question, yet the eloquence of the Chancellor of the Exchequer persuaded a majority of the House to entertain opposite sentiments. It was contended to be equally derogatory from the honour and security of the nation to purchase precarious tranquillity at the price of a pacification with the prevalent faction in France; and the fluctuating nature of their authority, and the enormous crimes they had committed, would render any stipulations with them as unstable as they would be dishonourable. Could it be expedient to relinquish the fair prospect of success we enjoyed from the unbounded success of arms, for the sake of the temporary suspension of hostilities which such a negotiation would produce? However infamous and unjust the partition of Poland might be, yet no exaggeration of the most heated imagination could persuade the world that it was so injurious to the particular interests of this country, or the general repose of Europe, as permitting Flanders to remain in the hands of France would have been. The timely interposition of the executive government had nearly removed the bad effects of the state of public credit; and at any rate, if we had abstained from this war, instead of a partial failure of our commerce, it would have been completely annihilated.

THIS SESSION OF PARLIAMENT

has restored internal tranquillity at the expence of foreign war; has given to the servants of the crown a majority unexampled in the history of the country; and prepared a permanent government for our extensive dominions in India.

A subscription has lately been opened to relieve the pecuniary embarrassments of Mr. Fox. To comment upon acts of private friendship, or insult domestic distress, is without our province. The circumstance reflects honour on the personal virtues of the gentleman in question; but a more delicate method of conducting the business would have placed the attachment of his adherents in a point of view still more to be commended.

Communications for THE ENGLISH REVIEW are requested to be sent to Mr. MURRAY, No. 32, Fleet-street, London; where Subscribers for this Monthly Performance are respectfully desired to give in their Names.

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TO THE

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AND

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Authentic Copy of a Petition, praying for a Reform in Parliament, presented to the House of Commons by Charles Grey Esq. on Monday, 6th May 1793; and signed only by the Members of the Society of The Friends of the People, associated for the Purpose of obtaining a Parliamentary Reform.

To the Honourable the Commons of Great Britain in Parliament assembled.

The humble Petition, &c. sheweth,

THAT by the form and spirit of the British Constitution, the King is vested with the sole Executive Power.

That the House of Lords consists of Lords Spiritual and Temporal, deriving their titles and consequence either from the Crown, or from Hereditary Privileges.

That these two powers, if they acted without controul, would form either a despotic Monarchy, or a dangerous Oligarchy.

That the wisdom of our ancestors hath contrived, that these authorities may be rendered not only harmless, but beneficial, and be exercised for the security and happiness of the People.

That this security and happiness are to be looked for in the introduction of a Third Estate, distinct from, and a check upon the other two branches of the Legislature; created by, representing, and responsible to the People themselves.

That so much depending upon the preservation of this Third Estate, in such its constitutional purity and strength, your Petitioners are reasonably jealous of whatever may appear to vitiate the one, or to impair the other.

That at the present day the House of Commons does not fully and fairly represent the People of England, which, consistently with what your Petitioners conceive to be the principles of the Constitution, they consider as a grievance, and therefore, with all becoming respect, lay their complaints before your Honourable House.

That though the terms in which your Petitioners state their grievance may be looked upon as strong, yet your Honourable House is entreated to believe that no expression is made use of for the purpose of offence.

Your Petitioners in affirming that your Honourable House is not an adequate Representation of the People of England, do but state a fact, which, if the word "Representation" be accepted in its fair and obvious sense, they are ready to prove, and which they think detrimental to their interests, and contrary to the spirit of the Constitution.

How far this inadequate Representation is prejudicial to their interests, your Petitioners apprehend they may be allowed to decide for themselves; but how far it is contrary to the spirit of the Constitution, they refer to the consideration of your Honourable House.

If your Honourable House shall be pleased to determine that the People of England ought not to be fully represented, your Petitioners pray that such your determination may be made known, to the end that the People may be apprized

apprized of their real situation ; but if your Honourable House shall conceive that the People are already fully represented, then your Petitioners beg leave to call your attention to the following facts :

Your Petitioners complain, that the number of Representatives assigned to the different Counties is grossly disproportioned to their comparative Extent, Population, and Trade.

Your Petitioners complain, that the Elective Franchise is so partially and unequally distributed, and is in so many instances committed to bodies of men of such very limited numbers, that the majority of your Honourable House is elected by less than fifteen thousand Electors, which, even if the male adults in the kingdom be estimated at so low a number as three millions, is not more than the two hundredth part of the people to be represented.

Your Petitioners complain, that the right of voting is regulated by no uniform or rational principle.

Your Petitioners complain, that the exercise of the Elective Franchise is only renewed once in Seven Years.

Your Petitioners thus distinctly state the subject matter of their complaints, that your Honourable House may be convinced that they are acting from no spirit of general discontent, and that you may with the more ease be enabled to enquire into the facts, and to apply the remedy.

For the evidence in support of the FIRST COMPLAINT, your Petitioners refer to the Return Book of your Honourable House. — Is it fitting, that Rutland and Yorkshire should bear an equal rank in the scale of County Representation ; or can it be right, that Cornwall alone should, by its extravagant proportion of Borough Members, outnumber not only the Representatives of Yorkshire and Rutland together, but of Middlesex added to them ? Or, if a distinction be taken between the landed and the trading interests, must it not appear monstrous that Cornwall and Wiltshire should send more Borough Members to Parliament, than Yorkshire, Lancashire, Warwickshire, Middlesex, Worcestershire, and Somersetshire united ? and that the total Representation of all Scotland should but exceed by one Member, the number returned for a single County in England ?

The SECOND COMPLAINT of your Petitioners, is founded on the unequal proportions in which the Elective Franchise is distributed, and in support of it,

They affirm, that seventy of your Honourable Members are returned by thirty-five places, where the right of voting is vested in Burgage and other Tenures of a similar description, and in which it would be to trifle with the patience of your Honourable House, to mention any number of voters whatever, the elections at the places alluded to being notoriously a mere matter of form. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

They affirm, that in addition to the seventy Honourable Members so chosen, ninety more of your Honourable Members are elected by forty-six places, in none of which the number of voters exceeds fifty. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

They affirm, that in addition to the hundred and sixty so elected, thirty-seven more of your Honourable Members are elected by nineteen places, in none of which the number of voters exceeds one hundred. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

They affirm, that in addition to the hundred and ninety-seven Honourable Members so chosen, fifty-two more are returned to serve in Parliament, by twenty-six places, in none of which the number of Voters exceeds two hundred. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

They

They affirm, that in addition to the two hundred and forty-nine so elected, twenty more are returned to serve in Parliament for counties in Scotland, by less than one hundred Electors each; and ten for counties in Scotland by less than two hundred and fifty each. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove, even admitting the validity of fictitious votes.

They affirm, that in addition to the two hundred and seventy-nine so elected, thirteen districts of Burghs in Scotland, not containing one hundred voters each, and two districts of Burghs, not containing one hundred and twenty-five each, return fifteen more Honourable Members. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

And in this manner, according to the present state of the Representation, two hundred and ninety-four of your Honourable Members are chosen, and, being a majority of the entire House of Commons, are enabled to decide all questions in the name of the whole people of England and Scotland.

The THIRD COMPLAINT of your Petitioners is founded on the present complicated rights of voting. From the caprice with which they have been varied, and the obscurity in which they have become involved by time and contradictory decisions, they are become a source of infinite confusion, litigation, and expence.

Your Petitioners need not tender any evidence of the inconveniences which arise from this defect in the Representation, because the proof is to be found in your Journals, and the Minutes of the different Committees who have been appointed under the 10th and 11th of the King. Your Honourable House is but too well acquainted with the tedious, intricate, and expensive scenes of litigation which have been brought before you, in attempting to settle the legal import of those numerous distinctions which perplex and confound the present rights of voting. How many months of your valuable time have been wasted in listening to the wrangling of Lawyers upon the various species of Burgagehold, Leasehold, and Freehold! How many Committees have been occupied in investigating the nature of Scot and Lot, Pot-wallahs, Commonalty, Populacy, resident Inhabitants, and Inhabitants at large! What labour and research have been employed in endeavouring to ascertain the legal claims of Borough-men, Aldermen, Port-men, Select-men, Burgesses, and Council-men! And what confusion has arisen from the complicated operation of clashing Charters, from freemen resident and non-resident, and from the different modes of obtaining the freedom of Corporations by birth, by servitude, by marriage, by redemption, by election, and by purchase! On all these points it is however needless for your Petitioners to enlarge, when your Honourable House recollects the following facts; namely, that since the twenty-second of December 1790, no less than twenty-one committees have been employed in deciding upon litigated rights of voting. Of these, eight were occupied with the disputes of three Boroughs, and there are Petitions from four places yet remaining before your Honourable House, waiting for a final decision to inform the Electors what their rights really are.

But the complaint of your Petitioners on the subject of the want of an uniform, and equitable principle in regulating the right of voting, extends as well to the arbitrary manner in which some are excluded, as to the intricate qualifications by which others are admitted to the exercise of that privilege.

Religious Opinions create an incapacity to vote. All Papists are excluded generally, and, by the operation of the Test Laws, Protestant Dissenters are deprived of a voice in the election of Representatives in about thirty Boroughs, where the right of voting is confined to Corporate Officers alone; a deprivation the more unjustifiable, because, though considered as unworthy to vote, they

they are deemed capable of being elected, and may be the Representatives of the very places for which they are disqualified from being the Electors.

A man possessed of one thousand pounds per annum, or any other sum, arising from copyhold, leasehold for ninety-nine years, trade, property in the Public Funds, or even freehold in the city of London, and many other cities and towns having peculiar jurisdictions, is not thereby intitled to vote. Here again a strange distinction is taken between electing and representing, as a copyhold is a sufficient qualification to sit in your Honourable House.

A man paying taxes to any amount, how great soever, for his domestic establishment, does not thereby obtain a right to vote, unless his residence be in some borough where that right is vested in the inhabitants. This exception operates in sixty places, of which twenty-eight do not contain three hundred voters each, and the number of householders in England and Wales (exclusive of Scotland), who pay all taxes, is 714,911, and of householders who pay all Taxes, but the House and Window Taxes, is 284,459, as appears by a return made to your Honourable House in 1785; so that, even supposing the sixty places above mentioned to contain, one with another, one thousand voters in each, there will remain 939,370 householders who have no voice in the Representation, unless they have obtained it by accident or by purchase. Neither their contributions to the public burdens, their peaceable demeanor as good subjects, nor their general respectability and merits as useful citizens, afford them, as the law now stands, the smallest pretensions to participate in the choice of those, who, under the name of their Representatives, may dispose of their fortunes and liberties.

In Scotland, the grievance arising from the nature of the rights of voting, has a different and still more intolerable operation. In that great and populous division of the kingdom, not only the great mass of the householders, but of the landholders also are excluded from all participation in the choice of Representatives. By the remains of the feudal system in the counties, the vote is severed from the land, and attached to what is called the superiority. In other words it is taken from the substance, and transferred to the shadow, because, though each of these superiorities must, with very few exceptions, arise from lands of the present annual value of four hundred pounds sterling, yet it is not necessary that the lands should do more than give a name to the superiority, the possessor of which may retain the right of voting notwithstanding he be divested of the property. And on the other hand, great landholders have the means afforded them by the same system, of adding to their influence, without expence to themselves, by communicating to their confidential friends the privilege of electing Members to serve in Parliament. The process by which this operation is performed is simple. He who wishes to increase the number of his dependant votes, surrenders his charter to the Crown, and, parceling out his estate into as many lots of four hundred pounds per annum, as may be convenient, conveys them to such as he can confide in. To these, new charters are, upon application, granted by the Crown, so as to erect each of them into a superiority, which privilege, once obtained, the land itself is reconveyed to the original grantor; and thus the Representatives of the landed interest in Scotland may be chosen by those who have no real or beneficial interest in the land.

Such is the situation in which the Counties of Scotland are placed. With respect to the Burghs, every thing that bears even the semblance of popular choice, has long been done away. The election of Members to serve in Parliament is vested in the Magistrates and Town Councils, who, having by various innovations, constituted themselves into self-elected bodies, instead of

Officers freely chosen by the inhabitants at large, have deprived the People of all participation in that privilege, the free exercise of which affords the only security they can possess for the protection of their liberties and property.

The FOURTH and LAST COMPLAINT of your Petitioners is the length of the duration of Parliaments. Your Honourable House knows, that by the ancient laws and statutes of this kingdom frequent Parliaments ought to be held; and that the sixth of William and Mary, c. 2. (since repealed) speaking while the spirit of the Revolution was yet warm, declared, that "frequent and new Parliaments tend very much to the happy union and good agreement between King and People;" and enacted, that no Parliament should last longer than three years. Your Petitioners, without presuming to add to such an authority by any observations of their own, humbly pray that Parliaments may not be continued for seven years.

YOUR PETITIONERS have thus laid before you the specific grounds of complaint, from which they conceive every evil in the Representation to spring, and on which they think every abuse and inconvenience is founded.

What those abuses are, and how great that inconvenience is, it becomes your Petitioners to state, as the best means of justifying their present application to your Honourable House.

Your Petitioners then affirm, that from the combined operation of the defects they have pointed out, arise those scenes of confusion, litigation, and expence which so disgrace the name, and that extensive system of PRIVATE PATRONAGE which is so repugnant to the spirit of free Representation.

Your Petitioners entreat of your Honourable House to consider the manner in which Elections are conducted, and to reflect upon the extreme inconvenience to which Electors are exposed, and the intolerable expence to which Candidates are subjected.

Your Honourable House knows that tumults, disorders, outrages, and perjury, are too often the dreadful attendants on contested Elections as at this time carried on.

Your Honourable House knows that polls are only taken in one fixed place for each County, City, and Borough, whether the number of Voters be ten or ten thousand, and whether they be resident or dispersed over England.

Your Honourable House knows that polls, however few the Electors, may by law be continued for fifteen days, and even then be subjected to a scrutiny.

Your Honourable House knows that the management and conduct of polls is committed to Returning Officers, who, from the very nature of the proceedings, must be invested with extensive and discretionary powers, and who, it appears by every volume of your Journals, have but too often exercised those powers with the most gross partiality and the most scandalous corruption.

Of Elections arranged with such little regard to the accommodation of the parties, acknowledged to require such a length of time to complete, and trusted to the superintendance of such suspicious agents, your Petitioners might easily draw out a detail of the expence. But it is unnecessary. The fact is too notorious to require proof, that scarce an instance can be produced where a Member has obtained a disputed seat in Parliament at a less cost than from two to five thousand pounds; particular cases are not wanting where ten times these sums have been paid, but it is sufficient for your Petitioners to affirm, and to be able to prove it if denied, that, such is the expence of a contested return, that he who should become a Candidate with even

greater funds than the laws require him to swear to as his qualification to sit in your Honourable House, must either relinquish his pretensions on the appearance of an opposition, or so reduce his fortune in the contest, that he could not take his seat without perjury.

The revision of the original polls before the Committees of your Honourable House, upon appeals from the decisions of the Returning Officers, affords a fresh source of vexation and expence to all parties. Your Honourable House knows, that the complicated rights of voting, and the shameful practices which disgrace election proceedings, have so loaded your table with Petitions for judgment and redress, that one half of the usual duration of a Parliament has scarcely been sufficient to settle who is entitled to sit for the other half; and it was not till within the last two months that your Honourable House had an opportunity of discovering, that the two Gentlemen, who sat and voted near three years as the Representatives of the Borough of Stockbridge, had procured themselves to be elected by the most scandalous bribery; and that the two Gentlemen, who sat and voted during as long a period for the Borough of Great Grimsby, had not been elected at all.

In truth, all the mischiefs of the present system of Representation are ascertained by the difficulties which even the zeal and wisdom of your Honourable House experiences in attending to the variety of complaints brought before you. Though your Committees sit five hours every day from the time of their appointment, they generally are unable to come to a decision in less than a fortnight, and very frequently are detained from thirty to forty days. The Westminster case in 1789, will even furnish your Honourable House with an instance, where, after deliberating forty-five days, a Committee gravely resolved, that, "From an attentive consideration of the circumstances relating to the cause, a final decision of the business before them could not take place in the course of the Session, and that not improbably the whole of the "Parliament" (having at that time near two years longer to sit) "might be consumed in a tedious and expensive litigation;" and they recommended it to the Petitioners to withdraw their Petition, which, after a fruitless perseverance of above three months, they were actually obliged to submit to.

Your Petitioners will only upon this subject further add, that the expence to each of the parties, who have been either Plaintiff or Defendant in Petitions tried before your Honourable House in the present Session, has, upon an average, amounted to above one hundred pounds per day; and that the Attorneys' Bills in one cause, the trial of which in point of form only lasted two days, and in point of fact only six hours, amounted to very near twelve hundred pounds. And this your Petitioners are ready to prove.

YOUR PETITIONERS must now beg leave to call the attention of your Honourable House to the greatest evil produced by these defects in the Representation of which they complain, namely, the extent of PRIVATE PARLIAMENTARY PATRONAGE; an abuse which obviously tends to exclude the great mass of the People from any substantial influence in the Election of the House of Commons, and which, in its progress, threatens to usurp the sovereignty of the country, to the equal danger of the King, of the Lords, and of the Commons.

The Patronage of which your Petitioners complain, is of two kinds: *That* which arises from the unequal distribution of the Elective Franchise, and the peculiar rights of voting by which certain places return Members to serve in Parliaments; and *that* which arises from the expence attending contested Elections, and the consequent degree of power acquired by wealth.

By these two means, a weight of Parliamentary Influence has been obtained by certain individuals, forbidden by the spirit of the laws, and in its consequences

consequences most dangerous to the Liberties of the People of Great Britain.

The operation of the *first* species of Patronage is direct, and subject to positive proof. EIGHTY-FOUR individuals do by their own immediate authority send ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-SEVEN of your Honourable Members to Parliament. And this your Petitioners are ready, if the fact be disputed, to prove, and to name the Members and the Patrons.

The *second* species of Patronage cannot be shewn with equal accuracy, though it is felt with equal force.

Your Petitioners are convinced, that in addition to the one hundred and fifty-seven Honourable Members above-mentioned, one hundred and fifty more, making in the whole THREE HUNDRED AND SEVEN, are returned to your Honourable House, not by the collective voice of those whom they appear to represent, but by the recommendation of seventy powerful individuals, added to the eighty-four before-mentioned, and making the total number of Patrons altogether only ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-FOUR, who return a DECIDED MAJORITY of your Honourable House.

If your Honourable House will accept as evidence the common report and general belief of the Counties, Cities, and Boroughs, which return the Members alluded to, your Petitioners are ready to name them, and to prove the fact; or if the Members in question can be made parties to the enquiry, your Petitioners will name them, and be governed by the testimony which they themselves shall publicly give. But if neither of these proofs be thought consistent with the proceedings of your Honourable House, then your Petitioners can only assert their belief of the fact, which they hereby do in the most solemn manner, and on the most deliberate conviction.

Your Petitioners entreat your Honourable House to believe that, in complaining of this species of influence, it is not their intention or desire to decry or to condemn that just and natural attachment which they, who are enabled by their fortune, and inclined by their disposition, to apply great means to honourable and benevolent ends, will always insure to themselves. What your Petitioners complain of is, that property, whether well or ill employed, has equal power; that the present system of Representation gives to it, a degree of weight which renders it independent of character; which enables it to excite fear as well as to procure respect, and which confines the choice of Electors within the ranks of opulence, because, though it cannot make riches the sole object of their affection and confidence, it can and does throw obstacles, almost insurmountable, in the way of every man who is not rich, and thereby secures to a select few the capability of becoming Candidates themselves, or supporting the pretensions of others. Of this your Petitioners complain loudly, because they conceive it to be highly unjust, that, while the language of the law requires from a Candidate no greater estate, as a qualification, than a few hundred pounds per annum, the operation of the law should disqualify every man whose rental is not extended to thousands; and that, at the same time that the Legislature appears to give the Electors a choice from amongst those who possess a moderate and independent competence, it should virtually compel them to choose from amongst those who themselves abound in wealth, or are supported by the wealth of others.

YOUR PETITIONERS are the more alarmed at the progress of private patronage, because it is rapidly leading to consequences which menace the very existence of the Constitution.

At the commencement of every session of Parliament, your Honourable House, acting up to the laudable jealousy of your predecessors, and speaking the

the pure, constitutional language of a British House of Commons, resolve, as appears by your Journals, "That no Peer of this realm hath any right to give his vote in the Election of any Member to serve in Parliament;" and also, "That it is a high infringement upon the liberties and privileges of the Commons of Great Britain, for any Lord of Parliament, or any Lord Lieutenant of any County, to concern themselves in the Elections of Members to serve for the Commons in Parliament."

Your Petitioners inform your Honourable House, and are ready to prove it at your bar, that they have the most reasonable grounds to suspect that no less than ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY of your Honourable Members owe their Elections entirely to the interference of Peers; and your Petitioners are prepared to shew by legal evidence, that forty PEERS, in defiance of your resolutions, have possessed themselves of so many Burgage Tenures, and obtained such an absolute and uncontroled command in very many small Boroughs in the kingdom, as to be enabled by their own positive authority to return EIGHTY-ONE of your Honourable Members.

Your Petitioners will, however, urge this grievance of the interference of Peers in Elections no further, because they are satisfied that it is unnecessary. Numbers of your Honourable Members must individually have known the fact, but collectively your Honourable House has undoubtedly been a stranger to it. It is now brought before you by those who tender evidence of the truth of what they assert, and they conceive it would be improper in them to ask that by petition, which must be looked for as the certain result of your own honourable attachment to your own liberties and privileges.

YOUR PETITIONERS have thus laid before your Honourable House, what the mischiefs are which arise from the present state of the Representation, and what they conceive to be the grounds of those mischiefs, and therefore pray to have removed.

They now humbly beg leave to offer their reasons, why they are anxious that some remedy should be immediately applied.

Your Petitioners trust they may be allowed to state, because they are ready to prove, that Seats in your Honourable House are sought for at a most extravagant and increasing rate of expence.

What can have so much augmented the ambition to sit in your Honourable House, your Petitioners do not presume accurately to have discovered, but the means taken by Candidates to obtain, and by Electors to bestow that honour, evidently appear to have been increasing in a progressive degree of fraud and corruption. Your Petitioners are induced to make this assertion by the Legislature having found it necessary, during the last and present reigns, so much to swell the Statute Book with laws for the prevention of those offences.

As far as conjecture can lead your Petitioners, they must suppose, that the increased National Debt, and the consequent increase of influence, are the causes of the increased eagerness of individuals to become Members of the House of Commons, and of their indifference as to the means used to gratify their speculations. To prove that they do not state this wantonly, or without substantial grounds, they humbly beg to call your attention to the following Table, all the vouchers for which are to be found in the Journals of your Honourable House, or in different Acts of Parliament.

At the Revolution { The Public Revenue did not exceed	£ 2,100,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had not ex- ceeded	£ 1,900,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom and indepen- dence of Parliament, to re- gulate Elections, and to prevent frauds, bribery, &c. amounted only to	14
At the death of { The Public Revenue William III. had increased to about	3,950,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to about	1,950,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to	26
At the death of { The Public Revenue Queen Anne, had increased to about	6,000,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to about	2,000,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to	25
At the death of { The Public Revenue George I. had increased to about	6,800,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to about	2,600,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to	37
At the death of { The Public Revenue George II. had increased to about	8,600,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to about	2,800,000	{ The number of Statutes found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to	49
In the 31st year of { The Public Revenue the reign of his present Majesty had increased to above	16,000,000	{ The Peace Establish- ment had increased to above	5,000,000	{ The number of Statutes, found necessary to preserve the freedom of Parliament, to prevent bribery, &c. in- creased to	68

It is upon this evidence of the increase of taxes, establishments, and influence, and the increase of laws found necessary to repel the increasing attacks upon the purity and freedom of Elections, that your Petitioners conceive it high time to enquire into the premises.

Your Petitioners are confident that in what they have stated, they are supported by the evidence of facts, and they trust that, in conveying those facts to your Honourable House, they have not been betrayed into the language of reproach, or disrespect. Anxious to preserve in its purity a Constitution they love and admire, they have thought it their duty to lay before you, not general speculations deduced from theoretical opinions, but positive truths susceptible of direct proof, and if in the performance of this task, they have been obliged to call your attention to assertions which you have not been accustomed to hear, and which they lament that they are compelled to make, they intreat the indulgence of your Honourable House.

Your Petitioners will only further trespass upon your time, while they recapitulate the objects of their prayer, which are,

That your Honourable House will be pleased to take such measures, as to your wisdom may seem meet, to remove the evils arising from the unequal manner in which the different parts of the kingdom are admitted to participate in the Representation.

To correct the partial distribution of the Elective Franchise, which commits the choice of Representatives to select bodies of men of such limited numbers as renders them an easy prey to the artful, or a ready purchase to the wealthy.

To regulate the right of voting upon an uniform and equitable principle.

And finally to shorten the duration of Parliaments, and by removing the causes of that confusion, litigation and expence, with which they are at this day conducted, to render frequent and new Elections, what our Ancestors at the Revolution asserted them to be, the means of a happy union and good agreement between the King and People.

And your Petitioners shall ever pray.

TABLE OF PARLIAMENTARY PATRONAGE.

Extracted from the Report on the State of the Representation, published by the Society of the Friends of the People.

NAMES of PATRONS.	NOMINATIONS.	INFLUENCE.	Total Mem- bers return- ed by Peers
Earl of Lonsdale nominates	1 for Appleby 2 — Cocker mouth 2 — Haslemere 1 — Boffiney 2 — Lelwithiel 2 — Plympton 2 — Lifcard	influences 1 for Westmoreland 1 — Fowey	7 6
Lord Mount Edgecumbe	2 — Gramound 2 — St. Germain's 2 — Boroughbridge 2 — Aldboro' York. 2 — Buckingham 2 — St. Mawes	—	6
Lord Elliott	2 — Marlborough 2 — Great Bedwin 2 — Launceston 2 — Newport (Cor.)	—	6
Duke of Newcastle	2 — Woodstock 1 — Heytesbury 2 — Malton 1 — Higham Ferrers	1 — Newark 1 — East Retford 1 — Buckinghamsh. 1 — Aylebury	4
Marquis of Buckingham	2 — Calne 1 — Whitchurch 2 — Knaresborough	—	4
Lord Aylebury	2 — Tavistock	—	4
Duke of Northumberland	—	1 — Oxfordshire 1 — Oxford 2 — Peterborough	4
Duke of Marlborough	2 — Orford 2 — Westbury	—	5
Earl Fitzwilliam	—	2 — Wycombe 2 — Ludgershall 1 — Derbyshire 1 — Derby	4
Marquis of Lansdowne	—	1 — Bedfordshire 1 — Oakhampton 1 — Staffordshire 1 — Litchfield 2 — Newcastle, Staff.	4
Lord Sydney	—	—	4
Duke of Devonshire	—	1 — Arundel 1 — Leominster 1 — Grantham 1 — Scarbro' 1 — Newark 1 — Chichester 1 — Seaford	4
Duke of Bedford	—	1 — New Sarum 1 — Monmouthshire 1 — Monmouth 1 — Gloucestershire 1 — Huntingdonshire 2 — Huntingdon	4
Marquis of Stafford	—	—	3
Lord Hertford	—	—	3
Lord Abingdon	—	—	3
Duke of Norfolk	—	—	3
Duke of Rutland	—	—	3
Duke of Richmond	—	—	3
Lord Radnor	—	—	3
Duke of Beaufort	—	—	3
Lord Sandwich	—	—	3
Marquis of Bath	—	—	3
Lord Egremont	—	—	3
Lord Westmoreland	—	—	3
Lord Cornwallis	—	—	3
Duke of Grafton	—	—	3
Duke of Dorset	—	—	3
Duke of Bridgewater	—	—	3
Lord Beverley	—	—	3

NAMES of PATRONS.	NOMINATIONS.	INFLUENCE.	Total Mem- bers return- ed by Peers.
Brought forward	66	Brought forward 38	104
Lord Camelford <i>nominates</i>	2 for Old Sarum	<i>influences</i>	2
Lord Foley	2 — Droitwich	1 — Worcester	3
Lord Bute	1 — Boffiney	1 — Cardiff	2
Lord Portsmouth	—	1 — Andover	1
Lord Orford	1 — Castle Rising	—	1
Lord Malmesbury	1 — Christchurch	—	1
Lord Hardwicke	1 — Ryegate	1 — Cambridgeshire	2
Lord Somers	1 — Ryegate	—	1
Lord Townshend	1 — Tamworth	—	1
Lord Harrowby	2 — Tiverton	—	2
Lord Darlington	1 — Winchelsea	—	1
Lord Bulkeley	1 — Beaumaris	—	1
Lord Powis	1 — Montgomery	—	1
Duke of Bolton	—	1 — Totnefs	1
Lord Spencer	—	{ 1 — Oakhampton 1 — St. Alban's }	2
Lord Falmouth	2 — Turo	—	2
Lord Thanet	1 — Appleby	—	1
Lord Guildford	1 — Banbury	—	1
Lord Camden	—	1 — Bath	1
Lord Poulett	—	2 — Bridgewater	2
Lord Grosvenor	—	2 — Chester	2
Lord Bathurst	—	1 — Cirencester	1
Lord Shaftesbury	—	1 — Dorchester	1
Lord Berkeley	—	1 — Gloucestershire	1
Lord Brownlow	—	1 — Grantham	1
Lord Pembroke	2 — Wilton	—	2
Lord Oxford	—	{ 1 — Radnorshire 1 — New Radnor }	2
Duke of Manchester	—	1 — Huntingdonshire	1
Lord Belham	—	1 — Lewes	1
Duke of Portland	—	1 — Nottinghamshire	1
Lord Uxbridge	1 — Milbourne Port	{ 1 — Anglesea 1 — Carnarvon }	3
Lord Exeter	—	2 — Stamford	2
Lord Warwick	—	2 — Warwick	2
Lord Petre	—	1 — Thetford	1
Lord Clarendon	—	1 — Wootton Bassett	1
Lord Bolingbroke	—	1 — Wootton Bassett	1
Lord Carlisle	—	2 — Morpeth	2
Lord Onslow	—	1 — Guildford	1
Lord Walpole	—	1 — Lynn	1
Lord Grimston	—	1 — St. Albans	1
Duke of Leeds	—	1 — Penryn	1
71 Peers nominate 88		influence 74	Total 162
The Treasury <i>nominates</i>	2 for Queenborough	<i>influence</i>	2
Ditto	—	1 for Dover	1
Ditto	—	1 — Rochester	1
Ditto	—	1 — Plymouth	1
Ditto	—	2 — Windfor	2
71 Peers & the Treas. nom. 90		influence 79	Total 169

PATRONAGE OF COMMONERS.

NAMES of PATRONS.	NOMINATIONS.	INFLUENCE.	Total members returned by Commons.
Wm. Drake, Esq. <i>nominates</i>	2 for Agmondesham	<i>influences</i>	2
Lord Clive	2 for Bishops Castle	—	2
Rev. Mr. Holmes	{ 2 for Newport (Ha.) } 1 for Yarmouth (Ha.)	1 for Ludlow	3
Sir J. St. Aubyn, Bart.	1 for Helistone	—	3
— Rogers, Esq.	1 for Helistone	—	1
W. Pulteney, Esq.	{ — }	{ 4 for Weymouth, &c. } 1 for Shrewsbury	5
R. Barwell, Esq.	{ 2 for Tregony } 1 for Winchelsea	—	3
P. C. Crepigny, Esq.	2 for Aldborough (Suffolk)	—	2
— Trefusis, Esq.	{ 2 for Callington } 1 for Ashburton	—	3
Sir H. Bridgman, Bart.	—	{ 1 for Wenlock } 1 for Wigan	2
J. Buller, Esq.	{ 2 for Saltaft } 2 for West Looe	—	4
— Buller, Esq.	2 for East Looe	—	2
Sir Francis Buller, Bart.	—	1 for Totnefs	1
Sir R. Clayton, Bart.	2 for Blechingly	—	2
Sir T. Dundas, Bart.	2 for Richmond	—	2
Sir E. Deering, Bart.	2 for Romney	—	2
Sir T. Frankland, Bart.	2 for Thirke	—	2
Sir H. Barrard, Bart.	2 for Lymington	—	2
Sir H. Calthorpe, Bart.	1 for Bramber	—	2
Sir F. Basset, Bart.	—	{ 1 for Hindon } 1 for St. Michael's	2
Sir J. Honeywood, Bart.	2 for Steyning	1 for Penryn	3
Sir F. Sykes, Bart.	—	2 for Wallingford	2
Sir J. Vanneck, Bart.	1 for Dunwich	—	1
Sir F. Barrington, Bart.	1 for Newtown (Hants)	—	1
Sir R. Worley, Bart.	1 for Newtown (Hants)	—	1
Sir C. Hawkins, Bart.	—	1 for St. Michael's	1
Sir R. Palke, Bart.	1 for Ashburton	—	1
Sir G. Yonge, Bart.	—	1 for Honiton	1
Sir C. Davers, Bart.	—	1 for Bury	1
Sir S. Sludger, Bart.	—	1 for Chippenham	1
Sir W. W. Wynne, Bart.	—	1 for Denbighshire	1
Lord Westcote	1 for Bewdley	—	1
Lord Middleton	1 for Whitchurch	—	1
Sir C. Gould Morgan	—	1 for Brecon	1
W. Joliffe, Esq.	2 for Petersfield	—	2
J. Robinson, Esq.	2 for Harwich	—	2
— Wilkins, Esq.	2 for Malmesbury	—	2
R. Troward, Esq.	2 for Ilchester	—	2
W. Praed, Esq.	—	2 for St. Ives	2
T. P. Leigh, Esq.	2 for Newtown (Lancashire)	—	2
W. G. Meddlycott, Esq.	1 for Milbourne Port	—	1
J. Calcraft, Esq.	2 for Wareham	—	2
J. B. Church, Esq.	2 for Wendover	—	2
Lady Irwin	2 for Horsham	—	2
Mrs. Allanfon	2 for Rippon	—	2
45 Commons nominate 61		influence 22	Total 83
			NAMES

NAMES of PATRONS.		NOMINATIONS.	INFLUENCE.		Total members returned by Commoners.
Brought forward	61		22		83
Sir Jonathan Phillips <i>nom.</i>	2	for Camelford	<i>influences</i>	—	2
Thomas Lister, Esq.	1	for Clitheroe	—	—	1
P. A. Curzon, Esq.	1	for Clitheroe	—	—	1
John Mortlock, Esq.	—	—	—	2 for Cambridge Town	2
C. Anderson Pelham, Esq.	—	—	—	2 for Grimby	2
J. F. Luttrell, Esq.	—	—	—	2 for Minehead	2
B. Barne, Esq.	1	for Dunwich	—	—	1
J. Bond, Esq.	1	for Corfe Castle	—	—	1
H. Bankes, Esq.	1	for Corfe Castle	—	—	1
E. Lascelles, Esq.	1	for Northallerton	—	—	1
H. Pierce, Esq.	1	for Northallerton	—	—	1
R. Ladbroke, Esq.	1	for Gatton	—	—	1
W. Currie, Esq.	1	for Gatton	—	—	1
W. P. Ashe A'Court, Esq.	1	for Heytesbury	—	—	1
B. Howard, Esq.	1	for Castle Rising	—	—	1
George Hunt, Esq.	1	for Bodmin	—	—	1
Lord Milford	—	—	—	1 for Haverfordwest	1
C. Forester, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Wenlock	1
J. C. Jervoise, Esq.	1	for Yarmouth (Hants)	—	—	1
C. Sturt, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Bridport	1
G. Rose, Esq.	1	for Christchurch	—	—	1
W. Evelyn, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Hythe	1
St. C. F. Radcliffe, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Hythe	1
T. W. Coke, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Derby	1
T. Anson, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Litchfield	1
W. Lee Antonie, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Marlow	1
T. Williams, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Marlow	1
R. Middleton, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Denbigh	1
Philip Raffleigh, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Fowey	1
C. Tudway, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Wells	1
J. Dawkins, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Chippenham	1
H. Penton, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Winchester	1
R. Peel, Esq.	1	for Tamworth	—	—	1
James Sutton, Esq.	—	—	—	2 for Devizes	2
— Whitaker, Esq.	—	—	—	2 for Shaftesbury	2
Sir P. Burrell, Bart.	—	—	—	1 for Bolton	1
Jos. Iremonger, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Andover	1
W. Beckford, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Hindon	1
Sir J. Carter	—	—	—	2 for Portsmouth	2
E. Bastard, Esq.	—	—	—	2 for Dartmouth	2
Edward Milward, Esq.	2	for Hastings	—	—	2
Thomas Lamb, Esq.	2	for Rye	—	—	2
P. Stephens, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Sandwich	1
Lord Mulgrave	—	—	—	1 for Scarbro'	1
R. Gamon, Esq.	—	—	—	1 for Winchester	1
Lord Bateman	—	—	—	1 for Leominster	1
91 Commoners	nominate 82		influence 57		Total 139

ABSTRACT.

71 Peers, and the Treasury, return by Nominations and Influence	170
91 Commoners return by Nominations and Influence	139
Total of Members returned by Private Patronage for England and Wales, exclusive of the forty-five for Scotland	309

FRIENDS

FRIENDS OF THE PEOPLE.

Freemason's Tavern, Saturday, May 25, 1793.

AT an Extraordinary and numerous MEETING of the SOCIETY of the FRIENDS of the PEOPLE, associated for the purpose of obtaining a PARLIAMENTARY REFORM, held THIS DAY,

E. B. CLIVE, Esq. in the Chair.

RESOLVED,

That the following Address to the People of Great Britain, be printed and published:

THE immediate duty of this Society is to state briefly to the People of the Kingdom, for whose benefit we have acted, in what situation the Cause of Reform, and they who are engaged in it, are left by the late transaction in Parliament. In so good a cause, it is honourable to have contended, and with a firm conviction that on its success depend the happiness and liberties of the nation, we can never suffer ourselves to despair. We are not deterred or disappointed by the present decision of the House of Commons, for neither is this decision final, nor is it a question, in which we were particularly entitled to expect, that truth and reason would be supported by superior numbers. We are not discouraged by this defeat. It would, indeed, be a ground of discouragement to us, if we could believe that the People of England were really unwilling to promote a change in the Construction of the House of Commons, or indifferent about it. Such, however, is the conclusion drawn by our opponents, from the silence of the principal cities and counties on the present occasion. We trust that we shall be furnished with a practical answer to this objection by numerous and strong Declarations and Petitions from a great majority of the kingdom. These are the means, and the only means by which we expect or desire to succeed. If the country in general will unite with us in demanding a Reform of Parliament, we have no doubt of its being obtained in a regular Parliamentary way, without a hazard of any kind. If, on the contrary, it should appear, after a fair and sufficient trial of the disposition of the country, that the measure has utterly lost its popularity, and that the Nation, whether adverse or indifferent, will not take an active part in support of it, then indeed it will become us to abandon all thoughts of a useless vexatious perseverance in so deserted a cause; and having appealed to the Highest Tribunal, by which a National Question can be determined, that of the People themselves, we must submit with patience to their ultimate decision. Individuals may adhere to their principles, but it will be in vain for them to persist in their endeavours. The duty that survives

hope will never be performed with energy or effect.—On the other hand, some circumstances encourage us to persevere. We have reason to believe that the intervention of the war with France, and the alarms, whether well or ill founded, which have prevailed throughout England, during the last winter, and which we have no doubt were excited and inflamed for the special purpose of checking the disposition of the country in favour of a Reform, and of calumniating the characters of those who promoted it. These, we believe, are the true causes of that silence and inactivity on the part of the Nation which have been objected to us in Parliament.

We are therefore of opinion, that the sense of the country has not yet been declared on this great question, and that their final decision of it has not been given. The temper of the House of Commons is evidently moderated since the subject was agitated last year. The Members, who stand for the Public on this occasion, are treated, as in all cases the representatives of a great popular interest, and of the popular will ought to be, with some degree of decorum. Declarations made by persons of great authority in the House, tho' ambiguous or unfavourable, suppose, and admit the possibility, at least, of their reverting hereafter to former professions, and of their concurring with us at some future uncertain period. When such men keep the opinions they deliver, within the reach of recollection, it is to be presumed that others who have no opinions at all, will see the imprudence of binding themselves by unqualified declarations which they may not be able to abandon or retract, however careless of character and consistency, and though urged to it hereafter by the only motives that ever influence their conduct.

The ground we have gained by the reception of our Petition, appears to us to be important, and the station it gives us impregnable. It is not a circumstance of little moment to the cause of Reform, that a Petition stating to the House of Commons itself, such facts and such arguments, with a direct offer on the part of the Petitioners, to establish every one of their allegations by sufficient evidence, should be received without dispute, and recorded for ever on the Votes and Journals of

the

the House. No objection was made to the form or terms of the Petition. No part of its contents was denied, or even questioned. The motion to bring up the Petition was not opposed by any man. The House heard it distinctly read. They ordered it to lie on their table; and after a debate of two days, refused to appoint a Committee to take it into consideration. We state the fact to the world, and leave it without any further observation.

In the conduct of this business hitherto, we are not conscious of having omitted any thing that could be expected from the efforts of a

few individuals, to rouse and engage the attention of the people to their own essential interest. They who think we have been deficient in any part of our duty, or that we ought still to proceed with activity and vigour, are bound to instruct us by their example, or at least, to strengthen us by their assistance. We have taken our station, and we shall not abandon it. The Nation shall at all times find us at our post alert, prepared, and determined, whenever we are called upon by the public voice to renew and to continue our efforts.

In name, and by order

of the Society,

(Signed)

E. B. CLIVE, Chairman.

JUST PUBLISHED,

REPORT on the STATE of the REPRESENTATION, delivered by their Committee to the Society of the Friends of the People.

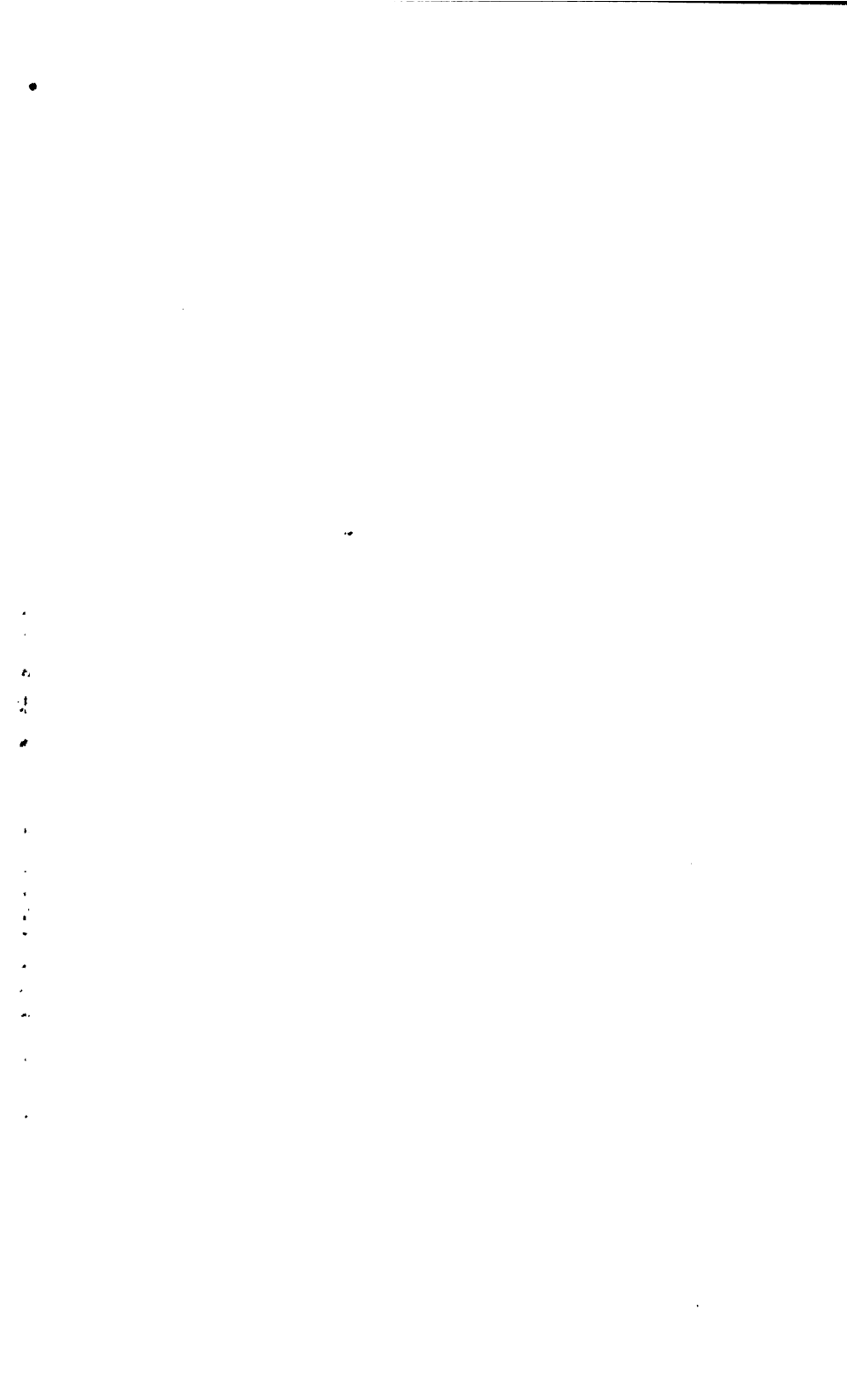
Printed, by Order of the Society, for D. STUART, at the Rooms of their Committee, No. 52, Frith-street, Soho; and to be had of all the Bookfellers in Town and Country, price One Shilling.

PROCEEDINGS of the Society of the Friends of the People, price One Shilling. Published by R. H. Welfley, opposite St. Clement's Church, Strand.

AUTHENTIC COPY of the Petition, praying for a Reform of Parliament, presented to the House of Commons, on the 6th of May, 1793, by CHARLES GREY, Esq. and signed only by Members of the Society of the Friends of the People, is published, price Threepence, by D. Stuart, No. 52, Frith-street, Soho; and a smaller Edition of it is also published, price only One Penny, by M. Gurney, No. 128, Holborn-hill; R. H. Welfley, No. 201, Strand; T. Spence, No. 8, Little Turnstile; and may be had of all the Bookfellers.

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